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ART. I.—TURKEY—ITS COMMERCE AND ITS DESTINY.

THE empire of the Turks, comprehending its European and Asiatic boundaries, has been the seat of the mightiest kingdoms that ever flourished. Originally but a chieftaincy, the territorial jurisdiction of the Ottomans now extends from the Persian Gulf to the Black Sea in Asia, and from the Kurdistan Mountains, which divide it from Persia, to the shores of the Mediterranean on the west. Their sovereignty over this vast expanse of country, which includes the remains of the mightiest cities and kingdoms of antiquity, is arbitrary and supreme; and within this compass the eye everywhere rests on the temples of Islamism, and the ruins of barbaric and civilized splendors, which mark the revolutions and violent usurpations of ages. The possessions of the Sultan in Europe extend from the Black Sea to the River Unna, which separates the empire from Southern Hungary; and from the western frontiers of Livadia, in Greece, to the River Sereth, which empties into the Danube, where that river first impinges on the Waldavian territory. The European portion of the empire is only nominally under the rule of the Turkish Sultans. It is divided into a number of principalities, in some of which the Greek, in some the Christian, and in some the Mohammedan religion prevails, while the civil laws and political government of each differ, and are, to more or less extent, independent of the Sultanic sovereignty. Until recently, Russian diplomacy and intrigue had obtained for that power superior ascendancy in the principalities; but since the Hungarian war, and owing to the Servian influence, which has materially changed in tone, and now inclines more partially to the Turkish side, the feeling in favor of the Ottoman rule among the masses, Greek as well as Mohammedan, increases, as the former partiality for Russia subsides.

Our space limits us to a mere glance at the rise and history of Turkey. As a power, it was not recognized until the thirteenth century. Nineteen hundred years had elapsed from the founding of the Assyrian empire to the going forth of Othman, and his introduction of the Scythian-Tartar race into the plains of Nicomedia. During this long period, Syria and Asia Minor had been the theatre of many a conquest and sanguinary conflict. Conqueror after conqueror had strode over each territory, and subjected them to the bloody baptisms of ambition, and the desolations of war. Empire after empire had passed away, each leaving monuments of its weakness or greatness, until in our day these stupendous but crumbling vestiges are the wonder of the world. After the Assyrian came the Medo-Persian rule. After the fall of Babylon and Persepolis, and the final defeat of Darius, the empire passed into the hands of Alexander,—the first general that had ever fought his way from the West towards the East; and who in turn, beset by another power from the West, greater than he, yielded up Syria and Asia Minor, and thus they became provinces of Rome. From their possession by Rome they became the prey of the Western emperors. In turn, they were wrested from the Greeks by the children of Hager and Ishmael, by the fierce Saracens, whose brilliant exploits threatened for a time the subjugation of Europe. At this point the history of the Turks, as a people, begins. Of Scythian-Tartar origin, they had descended into the plains of Assyria from the East, and had been raised from menial positions to be captains and chief officers in the army and political government of the Saracens. Thus employed, they had peculiar opportunities for moulding a national character, and obtaining an insight into the strategy of war and the policies of peace. Being in high military and civil stations of command, they had absolute control of the army movements of the Saracen Caliphs, and would, perhaps, but for the interposition of the Crusades, have ultimately directed the lances of the infidel soldiers against the bosoms of their sovereigns. But the temporary success of the Crusaders, and the final defeat of Saladin under the walls of Joffa, followed by the appearance of a counter-scurge in the person of Genghis Khan on the north, led to the speedy dismemberment of the Saracen empire, and the dispersion of many of the Turkish leaders. Othman, passing the mountains of Olympus, settled, himself and forty, (some authorities have it 400,) families in the plains of Nicomedia, in Bithynia, now called Isnikmid, in which province, at the head of the sea of Mamara, the Turkish town of Ismid now stands. In these fertile and obscure valleys the exiled general and his followers lived, prospered, and propagated. This was the origin of the Mohammedan Ottoman empire. Protected by the waters of the Mediterranean

and the Propontis on the west and north, and by the mountains Ida and Olympus on the south and east, the early settlers had little occasion to fear eruptions from the hordes which peopled Central Asia, or from the Mongol Tartars, which began to pour down upon Persia, Arabia, and the Saracen empire. Their selection of position was of the most judicious character. The life of the immigrants was principally passed in pastoral pursuits; but as the Mamelukes had now recovered Palestine and Syria, with whom the Turks were on a good understanding, Othman began to build castles, to discipline troops, and to encroach upon the Nicomedians, the original possessors of the soil. His success in all his undertakings was triumphant. Gradually the exile community took the form of a government. From being defensive, it became aggressive in its policy. As it grew in physical strength, it seemed to acquire in ambition; and the more it obtained, the more apparently was required to appease its thirst. Othman died in 1326. Oscan, his son, succeeded him, and pushed his conquests until all the territories of Bithynia and Nicomedia, with Nice and Prusa, were added to his possessions. He called himself Sultan, and put on regal robes. Amurath I. succeeded to the title, and, after conquering Thrace, made Adrianople his capital. This was the first foothold of the Turk in Europe. Bajazet, surnamed the Lightning, (in compliment to his quick military movements,) ascended the throne in 1389. He conquered all the Greek possessions in Asia, and in the great battle of Nicopolis (1396), he overthrew Sigismund of Hungary, the leader of an army of French, Germans, and Hungarians, organized for the express purpose of subduing the dangerous conqueror. Thus a second time was the repose of Europe disturbed by the near approach of the infidel—first by the Saracen, and then by the Turk, who had served as a slave in the camp of the former. But the scourge which had appeared in the North, in the person of Genghis Khan, and whose coming had shaken Central Asia, and imparted terror to Europe, proved a source of benefit to the latter at last. Tamerlane, a descendant of the Mongol Khan, (but a Turk by birth,) served Europe in this emergency better than it had been able to serve itself. Tamerlane, jealous of his rival, Bajazet, after massacring the inhabitants of Ispahan, and building pyramids of their reeking heads, to indicate how terrible was his vengeance, and to mark his love of havoc and slaughter, marched against the Turkish conqueror, met him at Angora, routed his army, and took him prisoner. Bajazet died in the camp of his fearful enemy, after long months of imprisonment in an iron cage, in which he had to endure the humiliation and mortification of being exhibited to the curious throughout the marches of the cruel Mongol. But this interposition relieved Europe of a dreadful scourge,

while it afforded time for preparation against like perils in future. But the death of Bajazet did not relax the energy or damp the warlike spirit of his sons. To them, and their successors, down to the reign of Solyman the Magnificent, may be ascribed all the glories ever won for the empire since their day, for surely it was the most splendid and dazzling period of the Ottoman history. When, sword in hand, Mohammed II. entered Constantinople, and placed himself on the throne of Justinian, he may well have called for the sheath of his cimeter, which he had discarded years before; for if ambition could be sated, the fall of the capital of the Western empire, the wiping away of the last vestige of Roman omnipotence, and the diadem which had encircled the brow of Constantine, would surely have sufficed for a sordid conqueror, much less one who had, in an eminent degree, many noble and solid qualities of heart.

Events in Turkish history now crowd so fast upon us, that, merely for the purpose of keeping up the continuity of our subject, we must be content with simple allusions to the main circumstances.

1451 to 1480.—Repeated invasion of the Austrian territories. Acquisition of the possessions of the Genoese in Crimea, and subjection of the Crimean Tartars.

1480 to 1512.—Wars with Hungary, Venice, and Egypt. The Christians treated with some degree of tolerance.

1513 to 1560.—Peace with Venice. The Persians routed at Kalderoon. Mesopotamia and Kurdistan added to the empire. The Mamelukes, with whom a rupture had been had, defeated near Aleppo. Cairo taken by storm. Part of Egypt and Syria added to the empire. Mecca and Medina are made subject to the Sultans. Solyman the Magnificent gives a code of laws to his subjects. Encourages learning and the arts. Belgrade and Rhodes taken. Hungary invaded, and Louis, the king, slain. An alliance with France, being the first with any Christian nation. The combined fleet of the Christians defeated, off Djerbich, on the coast of Africa.

1560 to 1600.—After the death of Solyman, the monarchs become noted for their indolence, and the empire suffers from neglect. Battle of Lepanto, which resulted so disastrously to the Turks. War with Persia. Revolt of the Janizaries, and their attempt to fire Constantinople, in which they partially succeed. Power of Turkey begins to decline in Hungary.

1600 to 1700.—Power of the Porte declines. War with Persia proves disastrous. Mustapha I. deposed for imbecility. Supposed to have been suborned by Persia.* Battle of Shibli, in which the Persians defeat the Tartar-Turkish army. Unsuccessful at-

* It is curious that so ridiculous a statement should appear in history.

tempt to invade Poland. Invasion of Persia, and Tabreez and Bagdad taken. Peace, and retrocession of Turkish conquests by Persia. War with Austria, for the supremacy of Transylvania. The Turks defeated at the battle of St. Gothard. Candia taken, after a siege of 21 years. First war with Russia, on account of the Cossacks. The Porte cedes the Cossack territory and the Ukraine. War with Austria, growing out of unsettled disputes. Defeated by Sobieski, before Vienna, and military ascendancy of the Turks in Europe broken. Zenta defeated by Prince Eugene.

1700 to 1760.—Peace of Carlowitz, in the treaty of which the Porte cedes to Austria all Hungary, Transylvania, Croatia, (except Belgrade,) and Temesmai; to Poland it ceded Kaminick and Podolia; to Russia, Azoff; and to Venice, the Morea and the Dalmatian fortress. The ascendancy of the Turks in Europe, by this treaty, utterly checked. An interregnum of peace. Hostilities reopened with Venice, and the Morea reconquered. Hostilities with Hungary; unsuccessful campaigns, and loss of Belgrade. A printing-press introduced into the empire, (1721,) by the Turkish Ambassador at the Court of France. War against Persia, and repulse of the Ottoman troops. Turks driven from their former Persian conquests. Reign of Mustapha III. The arts of peace encouraged. Trade flourishes; and the empire, while it enjoys tranquillity, advances in civilization.

1760 to 1774.—War with Russia, in behalf of Poland. The Dneister crossed on the ice, and the Russians driven out of New Servia. Defeat of Kahloul, and the Turks forced across the Danube in retreat. Loss of Beuda, Wallachia, and Moldavia. The Russians cross the Danube, attack the Turks on their own territory, and completely rout them. Henceforth the Porte sinks into a defensive policy, and Russia pronounces the *ultimatum* or *status quo*.

1774 to 1853.—The Russians seize Crim Tartary. War against Russia and Austria—the Austrians defeated. Invasion of Hungary, and seizure of Choezin and Oczakow. Alliance with Prussia. Battle of Imail, in which the Turks lose 40,000 soldiers. Peace with Russia and Austria, with other losses to the Turks. Peace with France, on the evacuation of Egypt. The French obtain great influence with the Porte; hence war with England and Russia. Another revolt of the Janizaries, who massacre the new-disciplined troops. Advancement of the arts and public instruction. Greek revolutionary war. Greek declaration of independence. The Morea a republic;—Greece a kingdom.

We have thus briefly brought to the reader's attention the leading features which connect the ancient and modern his-

tory of Turkey, and its more important relations with Europe. It will be remarked that the Sultans of the Porte have been by no means inactive. They have, collectively, enacted a conspicuous part in the theatre of political affairs; and the empire has borne more thrusts from the javelins of enemies on all sides, than any kingdom ever established on the European Continent. This may sound strange to those who are not familiar with the history of the Turks; but it is nevertheless true. Internally and externally—beset by the Janizaries and lurking assassins within, and the envious world without, Christian as well as Pagan—the wonder is that the empire has withstood it, throughout a period of seven hundred years, still acquiring in strength, and adding to or retaining its political and territorial dominion.

Turkey, as an agglomerate empire, is necessarily made up of different races, nations, and tongues; and, we might add, of all religions. Originally a chieftaincy, it has, as it has progressed, incorporated nations and tribes, with their territories; so that, although the legitimate race claim Scythian-Tartar origin, it by no means follows that any great proportion of the population have really such a descent. Polygamy has prevailed in the empire for centuries; and the harems of the higher order of Turks have generally been stocked from among the women of Persia, Arabia, Circassia, and Georgia; and by the lower orders, from among the women of the Danubian principalities and Greece. Every child is trained to adopt Mohammedanism from its cradle—that is, among the Osman population—without respect to paternity; and to claim descent from the Scythians, although the father may have been born of pure Saracen blood, and the mother have come from the hills of Croatia. It is difficult, therefore, to class the Turkish population, and to follow their generic origin. In Asia, it is an intermixture of the Caucasian varieties of the race, and a farther admixture with the Mongols; while, in European Turkey, the Mongol amalgamation is almost entirely unknown, the Caucasian amalgamation is greater. As Turkey in Asia has always been regarded by the Mohammedan as his true country, while Turkey in Europe has been merely regarded by him as a conquest, much may be gathered from this, why, as a nation, the Turks have been disinclined to commerce. The prejudices of religion prevented them from enriching the principalities by opening a lucrative trade with Europe by the Danube. Egypt and Greece already belonged to them, and in the rear of the empire in Asia, hostile hordes were ever ready to prey upon the caravans trading to and from the East. They found it more to their advantage to strengthen their empire by the sword, and depend upon Asia Minor, Egypt, and Greece for surplus supplies of the prime ne-

cessaries of life, than to trust the fate of the empire to chance, by the nation turning merchants, tradesmen and husbandmen, although the pursuits of commerce and husbandry might realize more happiness and tangible wealth, and unite them in a more enduring bond of intercourse (which they neither coveted nor sought) with the nations of Europe. The object of the Turks was, to place an impassable barrier between the Christian world and themselves; then, as a measure of future expediency, to fall back upon Asia, and exterminate the nations which had harassed them, and disturbed their repose in the East; and finally, with Greece and Egypt to furnish them with manufactures, and the Bosphorus as their river channel to the Mediterranean, to retire into a life of ease and indolence. But the rising power of Russia proved a serious impediment to the realization of this dream; and the result of many a battle, fought by them with zeal, with courage, and with desperation, while its moral enlightened the Turkish sovereigns of their pregnableness, ultimately led to a total change in their governmental policy, in which the people were induced to concur. After the peace of Carlowitz—after it became self-evident that the monarchs of Christian Europe, with one or two insignificant exceptions, had organized themselves into a permanent Congress, and sworn solemnly to a league of perpetual unity and accord, in which the *arbiter dictum* of Russia should be recognized, to oppose the advance of the power of the Porte in Europe—an approach which would neither suit Russia nor Austria in their designs upon Italy, Germany, Hungary, Poland, and the lesser States which “impinged upon their ambition”—after the Porte was forced to see that Russia was cutting through her channels of intercourse with the East, that England was meeting the Cossacks from the Indian Ocean; that—Greece being already lost to it—Egypt would prove an apple of domestic discord, as well as a source of foreign contention; that, unless a more liberal policy prevailed, and an alliance was sought with the more northern States of Europe, the empire would ultimately be deprived of every avenue to the ocean except the Persian Gulf—the Porte revised its foreign code, and placed it on an entirely different basis. An extensive system of police was framed, the agents of which were ostensibly called ambassadors, whose chief duty, besides attending to their political functions, was to transmit to the Sultan all available information with respect to the commerce of the world, and every detail that appertained to the foreign and domestic trade of Christian States. By such means, Turkey advanced rapidly in the acquisition of a kind of knowledge that was designed to prove of more essential advantage than the sword. From that hour—from the peace of Carlowitz—the character of the empire underwent modification; it has been,

indeed, wholly transformed. While industry and determined energy mark the progress of the people, the court has striven ever since to cultivate intimate relations with England and France, and lastly in the order of time, with the United States; with no ulterior view than, while enlarging her sphere of productiveness, of preserving her industry, her wealth, and her political existence intact. The population have been signally successful and apt in their tutelage. The merchants of the empire are proverbial for their probity and sagacity; the arts and sciences are cultivated to a reasonable extent; the lands no longer lie idle for want of tillage; the fields and vineyards are no longer barren and bare; perseverance is visible in the system of internal improvements which is conducted; while the harbors of the empire are filled with maritime fleets, either bearing away their burdens from the soil or the factory, or discharging cargoes from every port in the world. Let it be remembered, that no authentic history of Turkey has been written for twenty years. Within that period, the changes that have been wrought are more important to the welfare of the government and masses than those occurring throughout her long career of aggression and warfare.

The latest accessible returns of the commerce of the Porte are contained in the subjoined table. It will be observed that the amounts are given in Prussian thalers, which are worth at our mint 68 cents, but they readily pass in the foreign market for 70 cents.

	Imports from Turkey. Thalers.	Exports to Turkey. Thalers.
England	29,903,772	26,395,160
Austria	22,058,666	22,515,333
France	17,027,420	11,256,000
Russia	5,434,418	7,479,494
Belgium	293,330	1,036,533
Netherlands	571,360	458,000
Greece	1,312,500	333,000
United States	1,351,855	341,599
Hamburg	694,940	57,105
Bremen	70,601	5,635
Portugal	9,946	—
Spain, Italy, Barbary States	12,000,000	15,000,000
	90,728,807 or \$61,645,568	85,377,849 or \$58,056,937

It may well surprise those who regard Turkey as a merely semi-barbaric State, without education, without literature, without arts and sciences, without enterprise, and without commerce, to be informed that the exports and imports of the empire, without respect to the coasting trade, amount in value to nearly a hundred and twenty millions of dollars, thus placing it in rank as the fourth commercial nation of the globe.

This trade, too, is pretty evenly balanced, the exports exceeding the imports by about \$3,500,000. But to get at a more exact knowledge of the commerce of the empire, we must consider Turkey under two divisions—Turkey in Europe, and Turkey in Asia—the geographical position of its ports, and the number and religious instincts of its people. M. Ubcini has just issued a work from the Paris press, which acquaints us with many facts relating to Turkey, not hitherto attainable by travellers or collators. The following table is from the pages of his work:—

POPULATION OF TURKEY.

	Europe.	Asia.	Africa.
Mussulmen.....	4,550,000.....	12,650,000.....	3,800,000
Greeks	10,000,000.....	3,000,000.....	—
Catholics	600,000.....	260,000.....	—
Jews	70,000.....	80,000.....	—
Gipsies	80,000.....	—.....	—
	15,300,000.....	15,990,000.....	3,800,000
			15,990,000
			15,300,000
Grand total			35,090,000

Mussulmen, 17,200,000; Greeks, 13,000,000; Catholics, 860,000; Jews, 150,000; Gipsies, 80,000. We doubt whether, with its present elements of population and religion, European Turkey will ever become valuable to any single power, as either a producing, agricultural, or commercial country. The population, as contradistinguished, is made up of the Wallach, the Greek, and the Slavonic, which comprises the Bulgarian, the Serbian, the Bosniak, and the Croatian elements; lastly, the Mussulman, who is greatly in the minority.

The Wallachian race, though intelligent and brave, are enslaved and degraded, and will ever be regarded by Russia as vassals, and treated, them and their industry, as appendages of the Cossack crown.

The Bulgarians are industrious, productive, and enterprising; but here, again, there is an obstacle to their progress. They are willingly led by their priests, and their priests are loyal only to that power which pays them best.

The Turkish Greeks are, in morals, intelligence, and industry, the same in some respects, and in others the opposite, of their brethren of the Morea, or Independent Greece. They are industrious and frugal, but cannot be relied upon. Their craftiness and love of gain always render their loyalty of doubtful certainty. They consider only the present, and care not to build up a system of enterprise, the fruits of which strangers or their children are to reap, not themselves.

The Christian Albanians, outnumbered by their Mohammedan

brethren, hate each other with a cordiality that precludes all reconciliation, or a unity of interests. This state of feeling is engendered by one portion being Greek in its religion, and the other Roman Catholic; one calls the other apostate; the other retorts by calling the latter regicide and neither is willing to trust their Mohammedan neighbor. Turkey has but one section of coast on the Adriatic, which furnishes a harbor for vessels, and on which a maritime city could be built with commercial advantage. That coast is the Albanian; for although two projections of territories were reserved by the Porte, in its treaties with Austria, which extend to the Adriatic, piercing the Dalmatian coast in two places, and terminating in points which some day will become great emporiums of trade, the country is under the sway of the Montenegrans of Albania, whose fierce hatred of the Turks, and easy corruption by either Austria or Russia, make these reservations of coast to Turkey of nominal or no value whatever. And with the exception of Durazza (the ancient Dyracchium), the whole western coast of Turkey is unsafe for vessels, affording neither shelter in storms, anchorage in distress, nor navigation, owing to the rocks which line the main. Hence, whatever value might attach to Durazza, as a port, with the present population of Albania, all the advantages of sea-ports along the Adriatic are entirely lost to Turkey.

Lastly, we have the Serbs, who, numbering but a million, exert an influence over the whole population of the European provinces of the Porte. They are, politically, the most important of the Christian populations, "because," says a Hungarian authority, "they are the most warlike; because universally armed; because material prosperity and prosperous indolence allow every individual to engage in warfare; and because of the influence which Serbia exercises over Bulgaria, whose 4,500,000 will follow servilely in her wake." The Serb is his own landowner. He is independent of the Porte in his relations with the world; chooses when to labor, and when to desist; trades whither inclination leads; and is just as willing to send forward his cattle, swine, and rough produce to feed the army of an enemy, provided it were paid for, as to send it to Constantinople. They acknowledge no supreme authority, and bow to none.

These characteristics of the people of the principalities, which estrange them from each other socially, render it dangerous to impose universal rules for the regulation of trade internally, or rules for its regulation externally. Every class or race pursues its own ideas, submits to no imperial dictation, threatens revolt at every act of the Porte which contemplates an interference with its trade or intercourse, and, as far as possible, owing to

the dislike of each other, adopts customs and modes of business at variance with those of its neighbors.

As commercial provinces, therefore, the principalities are by no means so valuable to Turkey as they might be, if Russia and Austria were to forbear their constant intriguing with the population, the people settle down into contentedness, a feeling of unanimity and harmony of interest were cultivated, and the power of the Porte made to be felt in the civil administration of the country. We assert it, without fear of contradiction, that, from the mouth of the Danube to the Dalmatian Isles, and from Albania to the northern borders of Wallachia, there is more of social discord, antipathy of sentiment, perverseness in prejudice, and corruption of loyalty, than among the races of Peru, where eight distinct castes eternally jar, in their attempts one to assert higher descent or prerogatives than the other, and where every ennobling virtue is sacrificed to the attainment of a personal end.

The physical geography of Turkey in Europe next deserves attention. Its mountains, while they serve to separate the races, send down abundant streams, rendering the valleys among the most fertile of the earth. These valleys are numerous, and generally extend towards the great water-courses, which would seem as if nature intended it for a producing and exporting country. The rivers flow not only towards the central markets of Europe, but in greater volume and numbers towards that reservoir of waters, whence the evidences of the industry of three continents are borne away to the markets of the world—the Mediterranean. The Danube is the ventricle for Moldavia, Wallachia, Southern Hungary, a great part of Austria, for Croatia, Bosnia, Servia, two-thirds of Bulgaria, and Northern Romania; Albania stretches along the Adriatic, and her rivers pour into that sea; the rivers of Thessaly, Thrace, Macedonia, and Eastern Rumania, either pour into the Gulf of Salonica, or into the *Ægean*; while the population of Roumania, Bulgaria, and Rumelia, on the south and southeast, have water communication either with the confluent of the Danube, the Danube, the Black Sea, the Bosphorus, or directly with the *Ægean*. Nature has done much for European Turkey, in providing fertile valleys, a rich soil even on the mountain sides, navigable rivers, and a wholesome climate; but it has done more, in pointing the courses of its rivers, which traverse the Danubian basin, the plains of Illyricum, and bear away the prizes of industry in diverse channels to the bosom of the ocean.

When we come to consider Asiatic Turkey, it is like bringing into juxtaposition the people, manners, customs, and national characteristics generally, of two antipodal countries. In the physical constitution of the population, in climate, in general

pursuits, in everything, there is a want of sameness or unanimity with the races of European Turkey; which is the more remarkable, that the ægis of one government extends over all, and the work of centuries has been going on, to harmonize and to bring them both under one social system.

As will be seen by the preceding table, the population is principally Mohammedan. But only the people have changed—not the country. The glories of twenty different nations that once flourished in Western Asia, have disappeared; "flocks wandered over the tomb of Achilles and of Hector;" the thrones of Mithridates and Antiochus, and the palaces of Priam and Croesus, are buried in the sands of ages; Tadmor stands alone in the wilderness; and the harp of Israel may no longer be heard among the cedars of Lebanon: but, if avenging destiny has crumbled the monuments of man, and hushed the lyres of David and Isaiah, it has respected the sites there of earthly greatness, and left no vestige of Almighty wrath to mar the general features of the country. The same mighty river which rolled through the capital of Assyria, and bore the ice of Armenia to the burning plains of Mesopotamia, rolls on still; the forests which sheltered the flocks of the patriarchs, afford shade to the herds of Damascus; and the wild fruits which fed the pilgrims under Moses, are shed to the pilgrim, on his way to the shrine of Mecca.

But desolation has swept over the land, in the ruin of cities, and in the forlorn condition of vast plains which once were the support of those cities. The western part of Asia Minor, as famous for its memories and legends, as Syria and the countries of the Euphrates, presents fewer indications of the great change than the more eastern portions of Asiatic Turkey. But it must be borne in mind that the Turks were the conquerors of the empire they inhabit, and not the original despoilers. They inherited the ashes of fallen kingdoms and buried cities by conquest, and repeopled them after they had become again and again the theatre of barbaric destruction and human decimation. The Saracen had lorded it for centuries over the graves of twenty nations; and every crusade of warfare, whether waged within or without, still added to the universal waste, and obliterated still more the remains of former civilization and former habitation. All that has survived, and all that is visible in the progress of Asiatic Turkey, is due to the Turk, and not to the sparing hand of time, or the hallowed awe with which the wandering Arab or the fierce Mongol would respect the graves of kings, or the vestiges of their former pomp.

Every allowance, therefore, must be made for the slow progress which the Mussulman has made in the arts, in the sciences, and in handicraft; though, for that matter, as we shall presently

show, he has little excuse to ask, for, with the exception of purely modern inventions, of which two-thirds of Europe are still ignorant, he has kept pretty even pace with the rest of mankind since he has made a start.

Asiatic Turkey is divided into several pashalics, with the frontier boundaries, as now defined, only differing from what was claimed, at the time the geographers, Malte Brun and his contemporaries, gave us their works, in respect to the districts lying between the River Araxes and the Black Sea. Russia has here encroached on the empire, and is still endeavoring to obtain the northeast angle of the empire, with a view of having supreme control of the trade routes between the Bosphorus and the East, having their western termini at Batoun and Trebizond. Hence the difficulties between the Cossack emperors and the Georgians and Circassians, who inhabit these districts.

We need not pause to describe either the people or the geographical features of the pashalics of Asiatic Turkey. They are subjects with which all are supposed to be somewhat familiar. The rivers of Asia Minor are small, and are generally not navigable. They fall, some of them, into the Mediterranean, but the largest, after taking up the waters of a number of tributaries, flow into the Black Sea. The Euphrates and the Tigris, which empty into the Persian Gulf, are noble and imposing streams, and drain a large extent of country. While Turkey is enabled to retain the command of these rivers, with her splendid water-courses in Europe, no nation can exceed her in the possession of natural facilities for reaching the markets of the globe. Smyrna is the principal sea-port of Asia Minor, and is one of the most interesting cities of modern times. Though frequently destroyed by earthquakes and decimated by the plague, it rises again to opulence and importance, and seems, after each disaster, to gather both in strength and splendor. Besides being a terminus of the caravan trade with Bassorah on the Euphrates, and Odessa on the Black Sea, by which merchandise from India and Thibet, by one route, and the products of Persia and Arabia by the other, destined for the European and American markets, are brought, it is the fruit emporium of the northern and western hemispheres, and engages largely in its own manufactures. Before the earthquake of 1822, it employed 12,000 artisans in its workshops and by its looms. The concession of the Porte to the demand of Europe for the free navigation of the Bosphorus and Dardanelles, and the commercial route to India by Egypt and the Red Sea, have contributed to injure the ports of Syria and Asia Minor, as termini of the caravan trade; for many Eastern products are now either brought to the Mediterranean direct by the Isthmus of Suez, or ascend westward by the Russian routes to the Black Sea or Caspian, whence they are exported overland to Constan-

tinople, and thence by the Baltic to a market, or are deported at Odessa, where European vessels, with a free pass for the Dardanelles or the Danube, are in waiting to receive them. But Smyrna and the Syrian ports, notwithstanding these drawbacks, do an extensive business—Smyrna with distant nations, and Alexandretta, Latakia, Tripoli, Beyrout, Seye, and Acre, with the near ports, particularly with France and Italy on the Mediterranean. The port of export for Aleppo is Latakia—the *Λαοδίκεια ἐπὶ τῇ θαλάττῃ* of the Greeks, and the *Laodicea ad Mare* of the Romans—a city which once threatened to divert and monopolize the trade of Antioch, and whose inhabitants exhibited such resistance and endurance, as to excite the admiration of Antony, who declared it a free port. But Latakia, although it is well situated, will never again, perhaps, become a port of much consequence. Its harbor will scarce admit vessels of the lightest tonnage, owing to the accumulations of mud and drift which ages have collected in it; and, besides, the trade of Aleppo is beginning to find other outlets.

Damascus and Palmyra divide their outward trade and travel with the other Syrian ports named, of which Beyrout is the principal, although Acre and Tripoli have hitherto had a large share. Although the harbor is much inferior to those of Acre and Tripoli, its nearness to Damascus, the fertility of its adjacent plains, the enterprise of its inhabitants, and as the seat of the missionary cause in Syria, it is destined to open advantages to commerce which the others cannot count upon. Acre, to which there belong so many mournful recollections—Insular Tyre of the Phœnicians—could only boast, when Volney visited it, of one solitary merchant, who was a Greek, in the French service; and whose commercial operations, notwithstanding the command he had of the market, barely sufficed him for a decent livelihood. Under the Turkish rule, however, the city has lifted its head from the dust, and has now a tolerably extensive and profitable intercourse with the interior, and with the neighboring isles and coasts. Tripoli is cut off from the interior by unwholesome marshes, so that, were it not for its central or peculiar location, and the contiguity of Damascus, it would suffer wholly from neglect. The port of Saïde (the Sidon of Scripture) is nearly choked with sand, so that vessels cannot approach close to the town; but a large local trade is transacted, which gives to the place a bustling air and a flourishing aspect.

In brief, the towns of Syria, on the Mediterranean, have been greatly augmented in their wealth and influence within the twenty years past, and are taking their places, among the exporting and importing cities of Asia, in the highest rank. The relations of the interior of Syria with the Mediterranean—of Damascus and Tadmor as emporiums of manufacture, and of

Aleppo as a caravan mart into Persia and the East—will, unless the political complexion of Turkey materially changes, ultimately contribute to make them all cities of future renown and opulence. The exports and imports of Syria may be summed up as follows, for which statistics we are indebted to a missionary statement at Beyrout:—

Imports from		Exports to	
Austria.....	\$118,075	Austria.....	\$71,827
Egypt.....	1,101,300	Egypt.....	906,750
France.....	801,100	France.....	489,375
Great Britain.....	529,050	Great Britain.....	46,550
Greece.....	9,000	Greece.....	18,501
Sardinia.....	500	Sardinia.....	1,081
Tuscany.....	676,100	Tuscany.....	235,014
Turkey.....	630,000	Turkey.....	350,797
			2,110,895
	\$3,565,025		3,565,025
		Exports and imports.....	\$5,684,920

Aleppo is the chief seat of Turkish commerce in Syria. Although Damascus has borne a high reputation for the excellence of its sword-blades, for the beauty of the surrounding scenery, and the hospitality of its citizens, it can lay no just claim to rivalry with Aleppo as regards either the extent of its manufactures or the variety of its trade. Lying on the principal route of the pilgrims to Mecca, it will continue to be a town held in high reverence and respect; but it is not so advantageously located as Aleppo, and does not manifest the same energy of character. Aleppo, which has passed under various names—the *Χελδών* of the Greeks, the Chalybon of the ancients, and Haleb and Bercea by the Arabians—besides being the caravan dépôt of Syria, is famous for its manufacture of silver-lace, silk and cotton fabrics, and the beauty and richness of its shawls. It supplies all the fairs of Arabia; and hither are brought, by caravans, pearls and shawls from India and China, by way of Bussorah and Bagdad; camels from Arabia; cotton-stuffs and thread, morocco, leather, goats' hair, and galls, from the pashalics of Mosul, Diarbekir, Orfa, Aintab, &c.; furs, goats' hair, wax, gum, ammoniac, &c., from Vau, Erzeroum, and Kars; silk, copper, furs, and linens from Asia Minor; silk, Mocha coffee, soap, scented woods, drugs, ambergris, pearls, &c., from Arabia; rice, coffee, and Egyptian produce from Latakia; and European fabrics, watches, hardware, haberdashery, cottons and woollens of America, and the products of both hemispheres, from Smyrna and Constantinople. These are the supplies brought by the caravans. The exports of the city consist of almost every variety of the prime necessities of life, with its essential luxuries; besides products of the forest and the soil, taken from the surrounding country, which are partly exchanged for the hogs of Servia, the herds of Wallachia, or the produce exchanged at Cyprus. The imports, of which cottons, linens, and woollens form the chief elements, are

confined to no particular or specified articles, but are as general as the articles which obtain a market in Smyrna or Constantinople.

Bussorah, the Turkish port for the trade of the Persian Gulf, is a city of aspiring pretensions. Until recently, Bushire had been the chief entrepôt of the Euphrates for the traffic of the Persian Gulf with the Indies and Hindostan; but within the last three or four years the former has gained more in commercial importance than it had for a quarter of a century preceding. The proposition made by Great Britain to construct a railway from a point at the head of the Mediterranean, in Syria, to a point on the Euphrates near the site of ancient Thapsacus, now called El Der, to connect with a line of steamers to run between El Der and Bussorah, induced even Turkish indolence to enter with ardor into speculations, such as the fitting up of store-houses in Bussorah, and the building of new piers where they were required. As the scheme has not been abandoned, at least ostensibly, Bussorah is receiving many additions in consequence; and vessels which had hitherto plied to Bushire, from the Indian seas, now enter and discharge at the former place. The shipping of Bussorah is owned and manned in most part by Arabians, merchant residents of Muscat. The exports consist of Turkish produce, Turkish manufactures, and produce and fabrics brought down the Danube to the Black Sea, whither they are brought by caravan to the Persian Gulf. But Arabian spices, drugs, gum, and galls, together with bullion, raw silk, &c., enter largely into the export traffic. Arabian dates, sent from this port in one year, have amounted to fifteen or twenty thousand tons! The imports comprise many of the richest species of Eastern handicraft—dyes from India, shawls and silks from China, spicery from the Indian Isles, and products of the soil, the forest, and the loom, from all parts of the East.

From Bussorah there are three main caravan routes, besides those which intercept the through travels. One of these main routes, as we have stated, is to Aleppo; another terminates at Skutari, opposite Constantinople, on the sea of Mamara; and the third terminates at Trebizond, on the Black Sea. The principal routes which intersect with these great through travels are those which terminate at Ispahan in Persia, Tiflis in Russia, Hamadan in Persia, and those which connect pashalic with pashalic, and city with city, throughout Asiatic Turkey. Turkish enterprise has united the waters of the Tigris and Euphrates, by several canals, in the Babylonian Valley, so that, in the completion of other internal improvements undertaken elsewhere in Asiatic Turkey, in a few years no lack need be experienced for safe and speedy means of transportation for the inland commerce of the country, or in its relations with the world without.

We come now to consider the commerce of the Turkish ports on the Black Sea. The Turkish territories do not extend further north than about the 42d degree of north latitude. The port of Bantoun is about ten or twelve miles south of this line, in lat. $41^{\circ} 40'$, and long. $41^{\circ} 50'$. Trebizond, on the south coast of the Euxine, is probably 125 miles from Bantoun by air line, though 150 by land or water carriage. Samsun, on the same coast, is still further west, being 180 or 190 miles from Trebizond; and still farther west are the towns of Sinope and Hereclea, which, as seaports, are the least important of them all. Hereclea (or Erekli), Sinope, and Samsun, are the ports at which merchandise destined for the interior of Asia Minor is entered; Trebizond is the port at which merchandise designed for Central Asia, Georgia, and Persia, is entered; and Bantoun may be regarded as the Turkish port for the shipment of Circassian slaves to the Ottoman capital. Of Hereclea, Sinope, and Samsun, little need be said beyond what has been related of Smyrna. These ports receive the shipments of the Danube, and by overland carriage they are conveyed to Smyrna, Costamboul, &c., and are disposed of for the coast trade or local consumption, or are transported directly into the interior, and sold or exchanged in the inland market-towns of Asia Minor. But Trebizond is the most important city for its commerce, foreign and domestic, in the empire. The merchandise entering here is dispatched eastward by two caravan routes, one by way of Ezeroum, across the Pylaen Mountains, and the other by way of Rais and Erivan. These routes, after crossing the mountains, converge to a point, and are united in one at the town of Naksivan in Persia. The first mart, after leaving Naksivan, is Tabreez, where the goods are unpacked, and offered for sale. Hence the merchants pursue their route to Teheran, and finally to Ispahan. Trebizond supplies all the mountainous countries of the Caspian, Georgia, and two-thirds of Persia (indeed, the whole of Persia, with the exception of the East-India goods imported through Bussorah and Bushire), and a great part of western Caubul and Beelochistan. Some conception of the importance of Trebizond to the cotton-fabric trade of England, may be gathered from the fact, that ten million dollars' worth of British muslins, calicoes, &c., enter it annually, of which eight millions' worth are forwarded across the mountains, seven millions' worth being shipped alone to Persia. Russia has made extraordinary progress in her cotton-loom ability, and casts an anxious eye towards this field of cotton consumption, which England and Turkey have in common. Russia seeks to impair the commercial value of Trebizond; and England to maintain a policy

of peace, and therefore monopoly, which the impending question between the Cossack and the sultan may bring to a fatal termination for the interest of one or the other of the parties.

Trebizond is the best-situated port on the Black Sea for the Eastern trade. It invites such products and manufactures as the United States can, in an eminent degree, supply. John P. Brown, Esq., late of the American legation at Constantinople, has had access to official documents, relating to the trade of the empire, to whom we are indebted for the subjoined statistics:

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF IMPORT AT TREBIZOND—ANNUAL AVERAGE.

Manufactures (for Trebizond).....	\$504,000	Military stores (in peace)	\$30,000
Ditto (for Persian market).....	7,876,000	Cordage	18,000
Sugar.....	174,000	Russia canvas	12,000
Coffee	105,000	Wax	24,000
Beer	60,000	Indian corn (which might be greatly in-	
Tobacco	12,000	creased in amount).....	9,000
Salt	24,000	Wood for building purposes	6,000
Sugar, drugs, &c., for Georgia	132,000	Spirits	35,000
Hardware.....	195,000	Soap	19,000
Iron	92,000	Cotton (no market)	
Coal	18,000	Steel	7,000

Every article here mentioned, the United States is prepared to supply. The exports consist principally of, per annum:—

Silk.....	\$1,300,000	Nuts	\$300,000
Copper	103,000	Linen (Turkish and Asiatic)	105,000
Tobacco (native).....	72,000	Persian tobacco	150,000
Saffron.....	500,000	Boxwood	35,000
Shawls.....	75,000	Galls	11,000
Wax	72,000	Leeches	40,000

Almonds, leather, dyes, drugs, fruits, opium, &c., articles which we need, and are willing to exchange for.

The imports of Trebizond, fully detailed, amounted

	Francs.
Last year to	54,600,000
The exports to	15,000,000
	69,600,000
Being, in United-States currency, about.....	\$11,500,000

It would seem that Russia, gigantic as are her schemes for obtaining a monopoly of the Asiatic overland or interior trade, is not satisfied to accomplish them by halves. The design of diverting from Trebizond much of the trade which it now transacts on foreign account, and particularly with Persia, may result in seriously crippling that port, and the commerce of the Turkish empire, unless the sultan abolishes the imposition of the high tariff which is still levied on goods entering the Trebizond custom-house. His recent treaty with the Hanse Towns is a fair step toward ridding himself of the prejudices of his predecessors, in the matter of trammeling trade with

high custom-house exactions and port duties. But the reform must go farther than this; for every concession yet made by the government to the demands of the commerce of the empire, has been met by still more liberal concessions on the part of the czar.

In a former article* in the "Review," we endeavored to shew what were the designs of Russia with regard to the central and eastern Asiatic trade routes; and events since occurring have tended to place those surmises beyond a doubt. No profitable, or, indeed, expedient commercial overland channels between Europe and the East can be opened farther north than the southern borders of Kirgus. Hitherto, Russia has had no depots or entrepôts of any consequence, further south than Astrachan, at the confluence of the Volga with the Caspian, and Odessa (being principally a wheat market), on the Black Sea, at the mouth of the Dneister. Recently, immense store-houses have been erected at Tiflis, in the Georgian territory, and at Kalé, at the mouth of the Danube; and the Austrian Steam Company have commenced running a line of steamers direct from Kalé to Bantoum, omitting Trebizond in the way, with no other view than of making Tiflis a terminus for the carrying trade of the East, which heretofore has passed through Trebizond. Tiflis is as near to the markets of Persia as Trebizond, and nearer to the markets of central and farther Asia. Besides, commodities passing through it will avoid much of the mountain-crossing, which they now undergo by being sent by the way of Ezeroun and Erivan. Turkey must look well to its interests, in the conflict which has taken place, lest it lose the commerce of Trebizond, if not its nationality. England in this emergency can only look on in silence. If it moves at all, it will be in favor of that party which will afford its cotton interests most advantages hereafter.

It remains for us to speak of the Danube, as the recipient of thirty rivers, and the great internal water-course of Europe, for reaching the Black Sea. By canal and railway improvements, completed by Austria, Bavaria, France, and the German states, the Danube has an immediate connection with all the principal cities of the continent, and is every year made more available in conducting the products of the northern and southern hemispheres to the markets of each. It reaches the Euxine by three mouths, on the principal of which (the Soulineh) stands the city of Galacz, in Moldavia. Notwithstanding the anti-commercial character of the Moldavians, Galacz might, from its peculiar location, become one of the largest entrepôts in Europe. Not only the commodities which

* China—its Commerce.

come down from Austria Proper, Transylvania, Hungary, and the principalities, but much of the produce of Southern Russia and the manufactures of France, England, and Germany, find their outlet to a market through Galacz. Here again, we trace the effect of Russian intrigue. Instead of Trebizond being mainly benefited by Galacz, that city contributes all in its power to further the interests of Kalé, which the Austrian Steam Company are not backward in forwarding, so far as they are concerned.

Little more may be said of Turkey and its commerce. There is a struggle now between the sultan and the czar, the end of which we cannot foresee, neither can the aspect of the sequel be foreshadowed. But, result as it may, Turkey must adopt the free-trade doctrine and reduce its port duties, ere it can successfully compete with Russia in drawing off the Black-Sea trade to pass through its ports. It must, at the same time, remodel its system of government in the principalities; but, more essential than all, it must invite English or American artisans, operatives, and mechanics to enter its factories and workshops, to command its ships, and control its bazaars, until the nation is fully and wholly instructed; when it may, by the quality of the soil, the wholesomeness of the climate, the productiveness of the country, and its geographical situation, defy the artifices of the Cossack, or of the world, to divert trade from its natural channels.

ART. II.—INDIAN SUPERSTITIONS.

It may be said of all the questions that engage the attention of philosophical minds, that their investigation has a tendency, more or less influential, to impart moral or intellectual improvement to the inquirer. Man, as a moral being, has the singular faculty of deducing either good or evil from the same subject; and whether he educes the one or the other, depends upon the predominant disposition of the reasoner. Of no subject is this remark predicated with greater truth and fullness, than that of pagan superstitions. The question of the leading characteristic—or rather of the leading lesson taught by pagan idolatry and by the protean shapes it has assumed, has been hotly disputed by religious and infidel controversialists. Without at all entering into this controversy, we may be permitted to say that, in our judgment, no man—no inquiring mind—can enter into a philosophic consideration of the prominent topics that properly grow out of this *subject* without being struck with its significancy, and both improved and entertained. It frequently happens in mercantile life, that the mind that has

grown weary and perplexed with the questions affecting the material interests of man in his social relations, very cheerfully, if but momentarily or occasionally, turns for relief or relaxation to the consideration of subjects as foreign from the burden of his every-day thinkings as he well can find.

Was it not the *wise* remark—if it was not the wise, was it not at least the remark—of Pythagoras, that the cultivation of any nation or people might be ascertained correctly, and known, by seeing how far subjects affecting the *past* or the *future* predominated over those of the *present* in their intellectual investigations? Every man knows that it is the characteristic of savage and childish minds to be absorbed in attention to things near and real, to the exclusion of the remote and the ideal. Thus it may, therefore, be truly said of the cultivated and the wise, that in no respect are these qualities more clearly indicated than in their love of the disinterested and the far. This feeling has been seized upon by philosophers and poets, both ancient and modern, to magnify human nature.

The oldest superstition of which we have any account is that of Sabianism.

They believed in the existence of one God, but, nevertheless, paid adoration to the stars. This adoration was thus rendered because they considered the stars the representatives of an unseen divine influence, controlled by the one God. They believed, also, that the wicked would be punished for nine thousand years, and then restored to favor.

That human beings should be prone to render adoration to an unseen influence—an unreal and hidden power—is one of the puzzles of infidelity; and, indeed, is a matter of perplexity to all human philosophy. It is extremely difficult to account for the universal spread of mythological worship among all nations beyond the pale of christian knowledge, upon any well-ascertained principle of philosophy, and especially is it difficult to do so otherwise than upon the truth of the existence and the necessity of a true worship. Few subjects are more complex, or more interesting. What sound or safe conclusions is cautious wisdom to draw from this universal prevalence of idolatry? Are any to be drawn? Are the practices, or rather the symbols, of heathen worship veracious witnesses of any one truth, of value to human philosophy? Can human investigation ever solve the question why a blind worship has been permitted, and so long permitted? Is there any relation, and if any, what is it, between a false and a true worship? Does a false worship form any link in the chain of argument supporting the proof of the true? What is to be the probable fate of pagans, upon the supposition that their worship is untrue and ill directed?

These are all questions of grave import. Christian writers say that nothing can be plainer than that long after the building of Babel, and long after the dispersion consequent upon the confusion of tongues, the history, or rather the memory—if indications is not yet the proper word—of the ark and its inhabitants may be distinctly discovered in the symbols, and are imaged in the superstitious rites, of subsequent yet primitive idolatry. The first departure from the true knowledge of the one First Cause, arising from the natural tendency of mankind to worship the palpable and the near, began by conferring divine attributes upon the inhabitants of the ark. Here the link became first broken. The *first* parents of any people sustain a peculiar relation to that people. The *first* human being, after the knowledge of the cause of his existence had been lost, would be a subject of ceaseless wonder and admiration to all. Is it not quite natural, under these circumstances, that this weird and bewildered wonder and astonishment should in process of time ripen, if we may say so, into a pardonable idolatry?

It may be instructive to inquire what is the chief characteristic of heathen worship? *Heathen* worship, however, is not a term justly applicable to all false systems of worship—Jews and Mohammedans are not included among heathen nations. The term pagan is derived from *pagi*—*pagani*—small villages. When Constantine prohibited the public solemnization of heathen rites in the cities subject to his rule, their votaries at once retired to the small villages called *pagi*; and hence the name of pagan, and it became with the Christians the distinctive appellation of all idolators. The term pagan, therefore, does not properly apply to the Jews, nor paganism to the Jewish system of worship, although a false system upon the supposition of the truth of the christian system; neither do those terms apply to the Turks or to the Mohammedan religion, since the Mohammedans, like the Jews, worship the same one God.

Still, so far as affects the question, whose elucidation we regard as of much interest to the philosophical mind, they may be well included, and the inquiry may be yet important to ascertain what is the chief characteristic of all false systems of religion. Is it not that they all repose upon the principle that there is an unseen and invisible cause, capable of affording solace and succor to man's inner nature? In other words, is it not spirit yearning for spiritual support? This, if a truth, is of the first consequence.

Human intelligence, when left alone to grope in the darkness occasioned by its own limited perfections, has a natural—or is it not rather an unavoidable—tendency, to wander from the truth. In especial reference to the subject under

consideration, does not the unvarying history of the antique world furnish proof that man, unaided by exterior influences, never approaches *towards* the truth? To know and to appreciate moral truth, which is but an emanation from the perfect intelligence of the First Cause, there must be human effort, human self-denial, restraint of natural propensities. This is nothing other than a check put upon accustomed flow of natural laws. Whoever follows nature's promptings will be led into hideous moral darkness. It is thus we read the history of the past.

It is thus that we account also for the substitution that accrued, in process of time, of the symbols of ancient paganism in the place of the substantive truths they previously represented. It is thus we account for the mythological degeneracy observed among rude and ignorant nations, running into the most revolting and heterogeneous compound of absurdities and brutalized and brutalizing fooleries, alike disgraceful to human nature and humbling to human pride.

Another peculiarity of false religions is the intervention of third parties, between the unseen power to be propitiated and the persons to be benefited. Jenyns, one of the old English poets, says,—

"Grant these inventions of the crafty priest;
Yet such inventions never could subsist,
Unless some glimmering of a future state
Were with the mind coeval and innate."

It was a remark of Sir William Temple, that "different climates produce in men, by a different mixture of the humors, a different and an unequal course of imaginations and passions."

The Mohammedan religion is remarkable in one particular, which distinguishes it from other false religions. The doctrine of the Islam, in the opinion of its votaries, *originated* with Mohammed. The origin of other false religions is lost in the dim distance of antiquity. Tradition is one of the main supports of a religious faith. What is new is therefore thought to be false, and what has the support of tradition is greedily received, however opposed to the principles of reason and good sense.

The religious writers of every ancient nation delight in representing their systems of worship as originating in the earliest times. In this respect, the Chinese run back to a period so distant, as to shame all more youthful pedigrees. They claim to trace the origin of their religious records to a period of time many millions of years beyond the creation of the world as recorded by Moses. One of the most ancient nations of the world was the Chaldeans. Josephus has given

us some extracts from their earliest writers. In connection with scriptural history, their traditionary mythology is worthy of consideration. They believe that a monster by the name of Oannes, wrote a book giving an account of creation, stating that the world was first water and darkness, and that Omeroca, a woman, was the ruling power; and that she was destroyed by another power; and that this other power cut her into two parts, and formed the earth out of one part, and the heaven out of the other; that he then, seeing the earth was uninhabited, directed some other power to cut off his head, collect the blood, mix it with earth in order to form men and animals, and afterwards finish the residue of creation. They believe that the first power rose out of the Red Sea; and in some place near where Babylon was afterwards built, began the important work of creation.

The careful historical reader well knows that religious errors (by which we mean to designate the mythology of any nation) have their counterpart in those errors that are political. The reason, if there be any reason, why we should not look into and examine the gross idolatries of the earlier inhabitants of earth, applies with equal force against the examination of the political errors of the Greeks and Romans, or of any other nation. There are to be found in the feudal system for example, political principles, and political practices, as foreign from the true science of human rights and the true structure of social organization, as are the mythological cosmogony of the Hindoos or Chaldeans from the true history of creation as found in the ever-enduring muniments of the Jewish lawgiver. The time has not yet arrived in the history of man, when the questions, whether religious rites were originally invented by crafty men, in order to make the prone credulity of the vulgar contribute to their own personal advantage; or whether they arose from any principle in human nature that may be considered (what Mr. Jenyns calls) "innate;" or whether they are the offspring of one original revelation, corrupted in its descent down the stream of time, as it received additions or supposed improvements from a human fountain,—do not have a peculiar charm for all minds that take any interest, and that expect to reap any benefit from the examination of the wanderings of the mind in the search of truth of whatever character. Truths of the greatest advantage to mankind have arisen out of the company of gross errors, after a long and well-fought contest. In how much is the true science of chemistry indebted to the errors of alchemy? Besides all which, there is an ever-burning curiosity in man to inquire into the cause of things. And this inquiry ever delights him. It is one of the original

springs of his progressive improvement. It is the ability to gratify this wish, by rising from the knowledge of one cause to the knowledge of another cause, and thence to deduce a natural law, which distinguishes man from brutes, and elevates him in the scale of intelligence. Until many natural laws are known, and named and known by these names as arbitrary designations, man is under a necessity to employ figures of speech—to use symbolical images to paint other conceptions coming into use, or rising into knowledge. It is for this reason, that all the early systems of religion are intensely allegorical. These symbols, now utterly senseless to our view, doubtless pointed to some natural phenomena, or to some derived or imparted truth of history or revelation, that has departed from human memory, so that nothing remains for us to examine but the absurd symbol.

A very ingenious gentleman, by the name of Jacob Bryant, wrote a work, in 1768, entitled "Analysis of Ancient Mythology, wherein an attempt is made to divest tradition of fable, and to reduce truth to its original purity." Mr. Esdaile, Mr. Bryant's biographer, says of this work, "At the same time that we admit that imagination has often supplied the place of facts, and confident assertion been substituted for authentic history, it is yet difficult to say whether the ingenuity, the learning, or the industry of the author are most conspicuous. We scarcely know any work in our language whose defects and whose excellences are so conspicuous, nor any to which we could allow so many abatements on the score of inconclusive reasonings, and yet have so much left to challenge our unqualified admiration. It exhibits so many new views, and so many elucidations of obscure transactions, that no man who wishes to be acquainted with the more remote history of our species, can safely be ignorant of the *Analysis of Ancient Mythology*."

It is the theory of Mr. Bryant, that the deluge, and the historical incidents of the deluge, constitute the original standpoint, whence emanated the many religious rites of the ignorant and superstitious posterity of Noah; and that traces of this event and its history, are to be found very distinctly in the sacred ceremonies of Greece and Egypt.

"We may reasonably suppose," contends Mr. Bryant, "that the particulars of this extraordinary event would be gratefully commemorated by the patriarch himself, and transmitted to every branch of his family; that they were made the subjects of domestic converse, where the history was often renewed, and ever attended with a reverential awe and horror, especially in those who had been witnesses of the calamity, and had experienced the hand of Providence in their fa-

vor. In process of time, when there was a falling off from the truth, we might farther expect that a person of so high a character as Noah, so particularly distinguished by the Deity, could not fail of being revered by his posterity; and, when idolatry prevailed, that he would be one among the first of the sons of men to whom divine honors would be paid. Lastly, we might conclude that these memorials would be interwoven in the mythology of the Gentile world; and that there would be continued allusions to those ancient occurrences, in the rites and mysteries as they were practiced by the nations of the earth."

The India of the Romans was as large as the whole of Europe. They placed Persia on the one side, and the deserts of Tartary on the other. "Within these boundaries lay the hills of Tibet; the valley of Cashmere; all the territories in which the ancients placed the Indo-Scythians, Nepaul, Bootan, Assam, Camroop, Siam, Ava, Aracan, and the adjacent kingdoms as far as the China of the Hindoos, and the Sin of the Arabian geographers, the entire western peninsula of Hindostan, and the island of Ceylon."

The Rev. Messrs. E. Nott, L. Beecher, J. Edwards, Jeremiah Day, H. Humphrey, Mark Hopkins, S. North, Joel Parker, B. Tyler, B. Sears, R. Babcock, J. Bates, N. Bangs, H. J. Clark, J. Carnahan, Asa Mahan, E. W. Gilbert, Benjamin Hale, Silas Totten, and the Hon. A. Hasbrouck, say that Mr. Caleb Wright, "visited India a few years since, to qualify himself for lecturing on the manners and customs of the people of that country; and the lectures he has since published give evidence of the carefulness of his observations, and of his faithfulness in description," and that "he lectured in seven of the churches in this city [New Haven] to large and highly gratified audiences."

"It is the opinion of some eminent geographers," says Mr. Caleb Wright, "that India, under the name of Tarshish, was known in the days of Solomon, and celebrated as the land of spices, gold, and precious stones; but whether it be the Tarshish of the ancients or not, it has for a long time been justly regarded with great interest. Here, vast and powerful empires have successively sprung up and flourished, while Europe was in a state of barbarism. Long before Christianity shed its light upon the world, India was the land of the sciences and the arts. At the present time, however, its prominent characteristics are ignorance, poverty and superstition."

Mr. Wright was a personal observer of several Hindoos who sought to propitiate the god of their idolatry by bodily suffering. This is a very common error of all superstitious minds. They fail to discriminate between a moral self-denial

which is proper and commendable, and personal suffering which is improper and useless. All moral self-denial has a healthful tendency, because it is regulated by the great christian law of temperance in all things, but when it is pushed beyond its just limits, and especially when merit is expected to be deduced from those sufferings of the body which interfere with the discharge of the many social *duties* of life, that lie upon mankind by both natural and divine laws, a capital error has been made. Mr. Wright saw a devotee at the river Ganges, in Hindostan, attending a religious festival, who had held his left arm in an upright position so long, with the view to propitiate his god, that the muscles had lost all power of contraction, and the arm remained rigidly in that unnatural position.

He saw another in the city of Benares, with *both* arms entirely rigid, and fixed in an upright position, so that they were quite an incumbrance to him. He first began by holding his idol above his head, and continued to do this until nature accommodated itself to his foolish superstition, and put it out of his power to use his arms at all. But he became the object of the tender compassion of less devout persons, and was by them fed and tended as one full of the favor, and possessed of the entire affection, of the propitiated divinity that he adored at such distinguished cost.

The Hindoos claim to be the most devout people in the world. The number of their gods amounts to over three hundred millions. Nor are they at all disposed to live harmonious lives among themselves, but indulge in passions the most vile and murderous, and in practices the bare recital of which, says Mr. Wright, would "excite the utmost horror and disgust."

As a consequence of this immorality of the gods, the people are, as a general rule, divested of all those principles that characterize a virtuous, honest, or industrious nation. They are steeped in vice, and are utterly without faith in human virtue.

The goddess Kali, is a woman. She is represented as having four arms, of a dark blue color, and as trampling her husband under her feet; as in one hand holding the bloody head of a giant, and in the other, a destroying sword. "Her long, disheveled hair reaches to her feet," says Mr. Wright, "her tongue protrudes from her distorted mouth, and her lips, eyebrows, and breast, are stained with the blood of the victims of her fury, whom she is supposed to devour by thousands. Her ear-ornaments are composed of human carcasses. The girdle about her waist consists of the bloody hands of giants slain by her in single combat, and her necklace is com-

posed of their skulls. This monster divinity is one of the most popular objects of Hindoo worship. She calls forth the shouts, the acclamations, and the *free-will* (?) offerings, of myriads of infatuated worshipers. Her temples are continually drenched with the blood of victims; even human victims are occasionally sacrificed to her. In 1828 the Rajah of the Goonds sacrificed twenty men at one time as the promised reward of her supposed assistance in a single enterprise."—*Lectures on India*, p. 61.

The husband of this goddess, called Shiva, is one of the principal divinities of the Hindoos. He is represented as having eight arms, and three eyes, one of which is in the center of the forehead. His description in other respects is equally fantastical. He is worshiped principally upon festival occasions, occurring usually in the month of April. His principal temple is in the vicinity of Calcutta. On the occasion of these festivals, the people leave their usual occupations, and assemble in crowds around the idols representing this divinity, and dance tumultuously to the sound of rude instruments. They then erect a platform about ten feet high, and from this elevated position, the worshipers throw themselves upon a large number of knives, so arranged upon the ground as to lacerate the flesh without occasioning violent deaths. The object is to wound without killing. Thousands escape unhurt, but many are cruelly wounded. Self-torture seems to be the chief object of these idolatrous rites, and blood the chief token and representative of this torturing worship. Some insert knives, or other sharp instruments, through the arm, leg, or tongue, and then, with rods of iron or wood placed through these apertures in the raw flesh, they are kept green and festering. Some insert living serpents through these holes made in the tongue. Others, not content with this private demonstration of their devotional feelings, erect an upright post upon which they fix a long lever, to one end of which they affix ropes. By these ropes they control the other end, upon which the devotees are suspended. This latter has iron hooks for the accommodation of devout persons. These iron hooks are inserted in the flesh of the devout. The worship consists in having the hooks inserted into the more muscular parts of the back and arms, and in being by them elevated into the air and swung around many feet from the ground. "Thousands and tens of thousands," says Mr. Wright, "are thus cruelly tortured on these machines."

Mr. Wright visited the temple of the god Shiva, erected near Allahabad. The worship at this temple consists in bringing bottles filled with holy water of the river Ganges, and in breaking them against the sides of the edifice, and in

thus spilling the water near the temple. Besides the bottles of holy water, there is also to be contributed along with them a few copper coins. So devotional have been the worshipers, that the priests of the temple live in ease and luxury, as it is their business to take due care of the copper coin bestowed upon the god; and the temple, in process of time, has become surrounded by a high mound, consisting of broken bottles. One of the effects of this false system of religion, is the number of useless characters, called priests, devotees, or mendicants. There are in Hindostan, hundreds of thousands of them. They are not only not producers, but are pests upon society. Under the impulse of a mistaken religious notion, that it is pleasing to some idol to forsake a useful life of industry, they abandon, along with the duties of industry, the principles of honesty. They often leave their families to be provided for by the charity of others or to starve, and become either priests or devotees, or, what is worse, mendicants.

A mendicant is a much more exalted character, however, than the name would seem to imply. Persons of this order reverse, in their own cases, all the usual laws of social intercourse. The law of social intercourse that requires tasteful, nay, even ornamental, personal decoration, the mendicant reverses, and puts himself into habiliments the coarsest and the filthiest he can find, and for ornaments, wears upon his head masses of hair from other animals, decorated with the bones of his dead brethren, and with artificial snakes. They profess a more than human sanctity, and a more than human compassion. They carry with them brooms, to sweep the ground for the tramp of their feet, in order to avoid killing the insects that might otherwise be destroyed by incautious steps. So much tenderness of heart and such entire self-abnegation, and such a surrender of all the valued things of life, cannot fail, and does not fail, to elicit from the people from whom they solicit the charity of food, a high degree of attention and consideration. There is a sect of mendicants who worship the idol Krishna. This god during his sojourn on earth was very partial to the milkmaids. Hence these mendicants dress as milkmaids. They conform to this dress as a matter of personal discomfort in order to please this idol, who has the reputation with them of having married no fewer than sixteen thousand of this milkmaid class of the population.

Upon the subject of dancing, Mr. Wright is to be read with some grains of caution. In the earlier part of his work he states that dancing around the idol, to the noise of various instruments, is the accustomed practice of the devout worshipers among this people. He afterwards says, "Dancing is deemed so disreputable by the Hindoos, that none engage

in it but the most dissolute and abandoned." After having made this remark, he then proceeds to philosophize upon it. The conclusion he deduces will not, we think, be held to be always and universally true. "Here," says he, "as in other countries, there appears to be an intimate connection between dancing and licentiousness."

"Among the customs of the Hindoos, there is one called dherna—'If a man demands satisfaction from his neighbor for some grievous offence—if a creditor determines to pursue extreme measures with his debtor to obtain what is due to him—if a relative has been cheated by another out of his patrimony or his rights, and wishes to exact them from him, they respectively take the poinard or a cup of poison in their hand, and knowing that the offending party is at home, they sit down at his door in dherna. That moment the defendant within is considered under arrest. He cannot touch food so long as his accuser continues to fast; and should he not come to terms, but drive, by his obstinacy, the plaintiff to despair, and allow him to use the dagger or drink the poison, his blood rests upon his head. This may be termed the ordeal; their mode of determining doubtful questions of law—their system of duelling—their *dernier resort*.'"—*Lectures*, 118.

It has been contended by many very sound philosophers that the civilization of any people might be safely indexed by the treatment the female portion of society receive, and by the respect with which they are treated. If this be true, the Hindoos would rank very low in the scale. The education of females is prohibited upon principles of well-settled social policy. Hindoos say that the education of women stands in the way of the perfection of their character as abject slaves of the male population. Females have not a word to say with respect to the selection of their husbands, and are transferred like cattle, often to the highest bidder. It follows that success in courtship wholly depends upon the length of the wooer's purse, and thus it frequently happens that men of advanced years marry wives of ten and twelve years of age.

The highest written authority in Hindostan, the Shaster of the Hindu "declares that the supreme duty of a wife is to obey the mandate of her husband. Let the wife who wishes to perform sacred ablution, wash the feet of her lord and drink the water, for the husband is to the wife greater than Vishnoo. If a man goes on a journey, his wife shall not divert herself by play, nor shall she see any public show, nor shall laugh, nor shall dress herself in jewels and fine clothes, nor shall she see dancing, nor hear music, nor shall she sit at the window, nor shall ride out, nor shall behold anything choice or rare, but shall fasten well the house-door and remain

private, and shall not eat any dainty food and shall not blacken her eyes with powder, and shall not view her face in a mirror; she shall never exercise herself in any such agreeable employment during the absence of her husband, . . . and shall not go out of the house without the consent of her husband, and shall act according to the orders of her husband, and shall not eat until she has served him."

It has often happened in the history of man that the legislative authority of a country may enact very stringent laws, and the moral code may inculcate very rigid precepts of virtue, and yet there may be wanting in the governed that submissiveness so commendable in all social organization. We often find, even in those communities most highly advanced in the scale of social order, a power behind the throne greater than the throne itself; so it is not to be questioned, that even in Hindostan there are instances where these rigid regulations are not always obeyed to the very letter, and where their enforcement would draw down upon the head of the legal tyrant, a resistance not upon all occasions very quietly quelled.

Every reader of Eastern history knows that Hindoo mothers throw their infants into the water of the river Ganges, in order to propitiate some deity, and to save them from the hard destiny that too surely awaits them in maturer years.

The Thugs of India are a class of ferocious devotees who destroy human life by strangling their victims for the double purpose of booty and idol worship. The divinity of their idolatry is supposed to take delight in the death struggles of the strangled victims of their barbarity. This divinity is supposed by them to indicate, by occult signs, the particular victims whose death-struggle would impart to him satisfaction. Hence, these occult signs have risen to the dignity of a system. No matter how favorable may be the occasion, and no matter how wealthy may be the party, they never proceed to fulfill the duties of their religion by strangling, unless the signs are favorable.

Parties of these religionists travel in company, some as disguised merchants, others as ordinary travelers, and others as persons of distinction in pursuit of pleasure. They seem to hold no intercourse with each other, but are all, nevertheless, led by the one motive, and under the control of the one ruling mind. This ruling mind is under the control of the signs, as furnished by the divinity. If an intended victim is the possessor of a sacred cow, his life is spared until he can be dispossessed of it. If these religious assassins are about to proceed in an attempt of some difficulty, and a dog shakes his head ominously, the attempt is at once abandoned, as

they consider that this signal of the dog proceeds from their divinity. If a traveler in the very grasp of the Thugs, happens to sneeze, his life is immediately spared, because they regard that as a divine sentence of prohibition put upon their proceedings. The fighting of cats, if heard in the early part of the night, is regarded as a good omen, but if in the latter part, a bad omen. But this evil omen may be dissipated by the party gargling the mouth with sour milk. The noise of the fighting of jackals, is regarded as a very unfavorable token, and as a divine intimation that the party had better remove to another portion of the country. The noise of birds, the actions of animals, the fall of trees or leaves, the action of the clouds, the noise of thunder, all enter into the religious philosophy of their system. The color of the skin, the squint of the eye, the conformation of the body, the color of the clothing, and, indeed, every thing that has motion, form principles of action; since the divinity they worship uses them all to indicate his divine pleasure.

They are in the habit of stopping in all public places and highways near towns, where travelers pass. Arriving at villages, they generally enter them in straggling parties of three or four, as if by accident, and without any previous concert, for the purpose of learning whether any persons of distinction or wealth are about to go upon a journey, either of pleasure or of profit. Sometimes they are accompanied by children of ten or twelve years of age, who are made to perform many menial offices at the same time that they are inducted in the secrets of their horrid profession. They also serve the purpose of preventing suspicion from being attracted to them as persons of this dangerous calling. Many of them are well skilled in arts of polished life, and at once ingratiate themselves into the confidence of those upon whom a watch is set, find out their purposes and the period of their departure, and the sums of money likely to be carried with them. These become their ready victims, when the occasion serves. They either travel with them or follow after them, being in concert with accomplices; and when the propitious omen arrives, one of the number, by casting a rope around the neck of the victim, at once secures and dispatches him. After the death of the victim, he is usually buried at the depth of three or four feet below the surface of the earth, being placed with his face downwards.

After the victim is deprived of life by strangling, they farther render a religious service to the divinity, by mutilating the dead body—by inflicting gashes in the flesh, and dis-jointing the limbs.

"There is reason to believe," says Mr. Williams, "that

from the time of the conquest of Mysore by the English, in 1799 to 1807, the practice in that part of India reached its height, and that hundreds of persons were annually destroyed."

The magistrate of Chittoor made the following report to the authorities :—"I believe that some of the Phanisgars have been concerned in about two hundred murders; nor will this estimate appear extravagant, if it be remembered that murder was their profession—frequently their only means of gaining a subsistence. Every man of fifty years of age has, probably, been actively engaged during twenty-five years of his life in murder; and on the most moderate computation, it may be reckoned that he has made one excursion a year, and met, each time, with ten victims,"

It is almost incredible to hear Mr. Wright's account of the amounts of money and other valuables, offered upon the altar of idols, upon the occasion of their festivals.

The majority of the people, both rich and poor, contribute the half of their earnings to their false gods, in the shape of offerings. He gives one well-authenticated instance of one native giving, in this way, eighty-thousand pounds of sweet-meats, eighty-thousand pounds of sugar, a thousand suits of clothing, a thousand suits of silk garments, a thousand offerings of rice, together with plantains and other fruit. "On another occasion," says Mr. Wright, "a wealthy native has been known to expend *thirty thousand pounds, sterling*, on the offerings, the observances, and the exhibition of a single festival, and upwards of ten thousand pounds annually ever afterwards, to the termination of his life." . . . "In the city of Calcutta alone, at the lowest and most moderate estimate, *it has been calculated*, that half a million, at least, is annually expended on the celebration of the Durg, a Pujah festival."

Mr. Thompson, a Baptist missionary, saw on one occasion, more than three hundred thousand pilgrims assembled at Hurdwar, to bathe at the place where Brahma, the creator of the world, is said to have performed his ablutions.

All this folly has been of signal utility to the British nation, through the agency of the East India Company. They placed a barrier around the bathing place, and established a company to distribute tickets to these devout pilgrims. These tickets, sold upon a tariff of duties graduated according to the highest principles of political economy, so as to suit the condition of each devotee as respected his pecuniary ability to pay for them, were of no small advantage to the christian treasury of the Company.

Mr. Wright does not hesitate to affirm, in the most unequivocal manner, that this Company of Honorable East-

India merchants of the Christian Kingdom of England, "received fifty-five thousand dollars" of their heathen subjects, as admission fees for the privilege of seeing one of their idols. One cannot but admire the benevolent wisdom and ingenious forecast of this admirable legislation—benevolent, since it arrested, in a measure, the success of heathen idolatry; and ingenious, since it abstracted from heathen idols heathen money, and converted it to christian purposes. It is but justice, to say that this "unrighteous source of gain," according to Mr. Wright, "has been recently abolished."

The meaning of Juggernaut, is the lord of the world. The temple of this idol is in the district of Cuttack, near Orissa. It stands on a sandy tract of country, not far from a lake called Chilka. The idol is carved of wood, with a countenance frightfully hideous, and its mouth is blood-red. It is decorated in a style of the greatest elegance and cost, and clothed in the very finest fabrics. Contiguous to the temple, is the famous car, a tower sixty feet high, placed upon wheels, upon which the idol takes a ride on festival occasions. Along with him are also his white brother, Balarom, and his yellow sister, Shubuda. Several long ropes are attached to the tower, and the assembled worshipers draw the tower along upon its wheels, by these long ropes. Upon the tower are the priests and their attendants, who perform ceremonies proper to the occasion, and attract the attention of the multitude by song and immodest gestures. As the tower moves slowly along upon its wheels, the more fervent and devout worshipers throw themselves in the way of the wheels, and are crushed into instant death, by the immense weight of the tower. These insane acts of self-destruction are considered extremely pleasing to the idol. It has been estimated that not less than 1,200,000 persons attend the two annual festivals of this idol. They occur in March and July. The loss of human life—independent of the self-destruction under the wheels of the idol—from sickness, exposure, and starvation, is absolutely frightful.

"The contributions of the pilgrims," says Mr. Wiggleswall, "amount to a considerable revenue (about £12,000 per annum), which falls to the government, after deducting the expenses of the temple. The English took possession of the province in 1803, and forebore to exact the contributions of the pilgrims during the Marquis of Wellesley's administration, but on his departure from the local government, passed an ordinance for the management of the Pagoda, and the taxing of the pilgrims. The superintendence of the temple and priests was given, in 1809, to the Rajah of Kurdah, with the charge of executing the old regulations. A

road from Calcutta to the temple, has been made since 1810, to which a wealthy Hindoo, Rajah Sukmoy Roy, contributed £16,000, sterling, on condition of its being called by his name.

ART. III.—THE INDIANS OF THE UNITED STATES—THEIR PAST, THEIR PRESENT, AND THEIR FUTURE.

ACCORDING to Mr. Henry R. Schoolcraft, the present number of Indians in the United States is about 423,000. It has ever been extremely difficult to ascertain their numbers. The fear that the object of the white man, in ascertaining their population, was simply to enable him to levy a tribute upon them, has led them to resist all attempts to take a census. The statistics which we possess, have been wrung from the tribes, says Schoolcraft. "Conscious, themselves, of a paucity in their industrial means, and of a disregard of the soundest maxims of civilized life, they have resisted, if they have not often misunderstood, the humane policy which dictated the investigation. Instead of thereby seeking to acquire means of laying a tax on their property—an idea preposterous in itself, as none but citizens can, under the Constitution, be taxed—the inquiry merely contemplated the acquisition of information which might show their condition, and would be of incalculable value to Congress, in more perfectly adapting its laws to it.

The present census of our Indian population is, undoubtedly, only a rough approximation; as, since the enlargement of our territory by the annexation of Texas and the conquest of New Mexico and California, new tribes have been added, of whom we know but little, and least of all about their numbers. The aboriginal population of America has ever been greatly overrated; and the same spirit of exaggeration which actuated the early discoverers, has continued to throw its influence over every part of our history.* The same writer thinks it not probable, that at the opening of the 16th century, or any other period which may be selected, the number of souls upon the Indian territory bore any very considerable relation to the number of square miles of country which they occupied, in the shape of villages or hunting grounds. He thinks it doubtful whether an area of less than 50,000 acres, left in the forest state, is more than sufficient to sustain a single Indian living by the chase.

* Schoolcraft, "Indian Tribes of United States," p. 433.

This estimate, as to the number of acres requisite to sustain a single Indian, is entirely too great; for 50,000 is about 78 square miles; and, according to this, the whole area of the United States and Territories—2,983,153 square miles—would only be sufficient to sustain 38,245 Indians; whereas, Mr. Schoolcraft himself estimates the already greatly decreased Indian population at upwards of 423,000. Seventy-eight square miles is a pretty large range for one Indian.

One thing is quite certain, namely, that the number of Indians in America when it was first discovered, was immensely greater than now. Mr. Schoolcraft estimates the number now at about 423,000, which would be one Indian to about 7 square miles, instead of 78. And if the number three hundred years ago, was double the number now, there must have been at least one Indian for about every three square miles.

The principal causes of the decline of the Indian population of North America, are the following:

1. The introduction of fire-arms, by the whites, and the market which they created for furs. This changed entirely the pursuits of the Indians, who before hunted only for as much game as was necessary for their subsistence, the rest being allowed to live. The bow and arrow was laid aside; and hunting, from being a pleasant and manly pastime, contributing only to the wants of the Indian and his family, now became a regular, every-day, money-making business. The beaver, otter, mink, musk-rat, and other small animals, which had beforetime been sufficient for their food and clothing, and were good for nothing else, now acquired suddenly a new value; and the Indian's appetites were stimulated by every possible inducement of foreign production*—such as brass beads, buttons, rings, jewels of every description, baubles, knives, blankets, &c.—to exert all his powers in the chase. The consequence was, that large tracts of land were soon quite exhausted of their game, and thus rendered unfit for the abode of the Indian, compelling him to abandon the place of his birth and the graves of his ancestors, for new regions further off from the Atlantic shores. This was not, however, a sudden change: the Indian lingered long on the spot where he was born, his brethren in the mean time gradually diminishing in numbers. The law of population, that it increases or diminishes just in proportion as the means of subsistence increases or diminishes, exhibited its operations in the gradual diminution of the Indian population, and followed him to his new hunting grounds. The white man also hastened his departure, by offering to purchase, with rum and trinkets, his gameless

* Schoolcraft.

forests, taking advantage of his necessities, his ignorance, and his created appetite for strong drink, which,

2d. Was the greatest cause of all of the diminution of the Indian population. It paralyzed his powers as a hunter, made him lazy, and wore out his constitution. To the scarcity of food, effected by his incessant hunting for furs, was added the body and soul-destroying "*fire-water*" of the christian white man. This completed his ruin, and stripped him of his hunting-grounds and life. Those who were not killed by it, were bought out and driven farther back, there only to be beset, in like manner, again by the civilized white men.

3d. The next cause, which we shall mention, of the decline of the Indian population, is a benevolent one, intended as a good, and as a reparation, but operating, in fact, as a powerful means of diminishing the race; we mean the payment of cash annuities to tribes, *per capita* or otherwise. This is found to render them indolent, vicious, and improvident, and to make them more than ever the prey of vicious white men, who now hang about the Indian tribes, not for their furs, as of old, but for their *money*. This they easily obtain in exchange for food and clothing, at enormous prices, and for disease and death-creating whisky. The annuities paid the Indians, are thus operating as their certain destruction. While they had to hunt all day for a little whisky, its operation was slower, there being less drunk; but now, when they are abundantly supplied from the national treasury with money in hand, they drink barrels where they formerly drank quarts. "It is a question of moment," says Mr. Schoolcraft, whether the ready means thus supplied to them of self-indulgence in the use of distilled spirits, is not hurrying them onward in a career that must end in their moral wreck. It is seen from the inquiries that have been thus far made, that small tribes who, but a few years ago, were prosperous, and had kept up, if not increased, from the era of 1814, in their numbers, have, under the influence of high cash annuities and unlimited credit, been hurried on in the triple career of intemperance, depopulation, and moral degradation. Such, indeed, is their fearful progress in this course, that a few years must result in the entire extinction of some well-known tribes."

4. Another very serious and fatal cause of the decline of the Indian population is the *small-pox*. No disease that has been introduced among them by the whites, has exercised so fatal an influence upon them as this. Their physicians have no remedy for it. They regard it as if it were the plague,

and on its first appearance, with the full conviction that it is incurable, blindly submit to its ravages. This disease, which has spread among them periodically, and at irregular intervals of time, has been one of the most prominent causes, says Mr. Schoolcraft, of their depopulation. Ardent spirits, it is true, have, in the long run, carried off the greatest number; but, its ravages have been comparatively slow, and not characterized by those revolting scenes that have attended the small-pox.

In the year 1837, the small-pox made its appearance in the valley of the Missouri, on board a steamboat, the *St. Peters*, in the case of a mulatto man, at Black Snake Hills, sixty miles above Fort Leavenworth. It was at first supposed to be the measles; but by the time the boat reached the Council Bluffs, it was ascertained to be small-pox, and had of course been communicated to many in whom the disease was still latent. Every precaution was taken, by sending couriers to the Indians, two days ahead of the boat; but, in spite of this, the disease broke out among them, and spread fearfully. On the 15th of July it appeared among the Mandans, a tribe of 1,600 Indians, living in two villages. In a short time it destroyed all but 31 souls. It next attacked the Minnetarees, a neighboring tribe, and reduced their numbers from 1,000 to 500. The Arickarees, a tribe of 3,000, were next attacked, and only some 1,500 escaped death. It next appeared, the same year, among the Assiniboin, a powerful tribe of 9,000, living north of the Missouri, the whole tribe of whom it nearly annihilated. The Crow or Upsaroka Indians, about 3,000 in number, lost two out of three. It next extended its frightful ravages to the great Blackfoot nation, known under the various names of Blood Indians, Piegiens, and Atrinos, and estimated at from 30,000 to 50,000 in number. The inmates of 1,000 lodges, says Mr. Schoolcraft, were destroyed. The number in a lodge he estimates at from six to eight persons. This would make the total number destroyed from 6,000 to 8,000 persons. Mr. Schoolcraft estimates the number of Indians who perished by the disease, in 1837, at not less than 10,000 persons.*

An eye-witness of the awful scenes of misery and death among the Indians, during that frightful epidemic of 1837, writes as follows from Fort Union, under date of Nov. 27th, 1837: "Language, however forcible, can convey but a faint idea of the scene of desolation which the country now presents. In whatever direction you turn, nothing but sad wrecks of mortality meet the eye; lodges standing on every hill, but not a

* Schoolcraft's "Indian Tribes," part 1. p. 257-8.

streak of smoke rising from them. Not a sound can be heard to break the awful stillness, save the ominous croak of ravens, and the mournful howl of wolves, fattening on the human carcasses that lie strewed around." Another writer says: "Many of the handsome Arickarees, who had recovered, seeing the disfiguration of their features, committed suicide; some by throwing themselves from rocks, others by stabbing and shooting. The prairie has become a grave-yard; its wild flowers bloom over the sepulchres of Indians. The atmosphere, for miles, is poisoned by the stench of the hundreds of carcasses unburied. The women and children are wandering in groups, without food, or howling over the dead. The men are flying in every direction. The proud, warlike, and noble-looking Blackfoots are no more. Their deserted lodges are seen on every hill. No sound but the raven's croak or the wolf's howl, breaks the solemn stillness. The scene of desolation is appalling, beyond the power of the imagination to conceive."

Many laws have been enacted by Congress, having for their object the preservation of the Indian race. But these laws avail but little. The white man always finds ways of evading them. The law, for instance, denounces a heavy penalty against persons carrying ardent spirits into the Indian country; but the Indian agents have decided that the law only applies to white men—that the Indian is not a person, in the eye of the law; and therefore that *he* may carry as much whisky into his own country as he chooses; and so the Indian country is flooded with intoxicating drinks, producing quarreling and frequent murders among the Indians. These murders are left to be punished by the Indians themselves, and these punishments lead to bloody, depopulating wars. The United States laws regarding murders among the Indians, are interpreted by the Indian agents to mean, that if a white man kills an Indian, he must be seized and punished; but if an Indian kills an Indian, the matter must be settled by the Indians themselves, without any interference on the part of the whites.

After all, we believe that legislation, of any kind, will do but little good. Nor have the kind and self-denying efforts of our christian missionaries done much towards civilizing them, and ameliorating their condition. Do what we will, the Indian remains the Indian still. He is not a creature susceptible of civilization; and all contact of him with the white races is death. He dwindles before them—imbibing all of their vices, and none of their virtues. He can no more be civilized than the leopard can change his spots. His race is run, and probably he has performed his earthly mission. He is now gradu-

ally disappearing, to give place to a higher order of beings. The order of nature must have its course.

We close our paper with a statement prepared by the Indian office for the United States Census at Washington, showing the total number of Indians within the dominions of the United States at several periods, the names of the tribes, their present and past location, &c. It will be observed that the increase from period to period is owing to the admission of new Indian territory into the Union.

STATEMENT SHOWING THE NUMBER OF INDIANS WITHIN THE TERRITORY OF THE UNITED STATES AT DIFFERENT PERIODS, NUMBER IN EACH TRIBE, PRESENT AND PAST LOCATION, ETC.

NAME OF TRIBE, AND LOCATION IN 1825, &c.	1825.	1853.	PRESENT LOCATION, AND REMARKS.
	NUMBER.	NUMBER.	
St. Johns Indians, Maine	300		Obtained from report of T. L. Mc Kenney, Esq., Head of the Indian Office, to the Secretary of War, dated January 10, 1825.
Pasamaquoddy, do.	379		
Penobscot, do.	377		
Marapog, Massachusetts	320		
Herring Pond, do.	40		Of late years these tribes have either become extinct or so reduced in number as to be lost sight of by the government in their tribal character.
Martha's Vineyard, do.	340		
Troy, do.	50		
Narragansett, Rhode Island	420		
Mohegan, Connecticut	300		The aggregate number of Indians now residing in New York. The Oneidas, Stockbridges, Brothertons, and a few Senecas, are now west—part living in Wisconsin, the others in Indian Territory.
Stonington, do.	50		
Groton, do.	50		
Senecas, New York	2,325		
Tuscaroras, do.	253		
Oneidas, do.	1,096		
Onondagas, do.	446		
Cayugas, do.	90	3,745	
Stockbridges, do.	273		
Brothertons, do.	360		
St. Regis, do.	300		
Notoways, Virginia	47		{ Supposed to be none in Virginia at present.
Catawbas, South Carolina	450	300	Estimated.
Wyandots, Ohio	542	533	Now in Indian Territory, west.
Shawnees, do.	800		{ 1,400 do. do. do.
Senecas, do.	551		
Delawares, do.	80		{ do. do. do.
Ottowas, do.	377	247	
Wyandots, Michigan Territory	37		{ Supposed to be few, if any, in Michigan now.
Pottawatomies, do.	106		{ The Menomonees and a large number of Chippewas, with the Winnebagoes, are now, the first tribe in Wisconsin, the others in Minnesota.
Chippewas and Ottowas, do.	18,473	7,000	
Menomonees, do.	3,900	2,300	
Winnebagoes, do.	5,800	2,706	
Miamies and Eel River, Indiana	1,073	766	{ The larger portion live in Indian Territory, west; balance in Indiana.
Menomonee, Illinois	270		Now in Wisconsin. (See above.)
Kaskaskias, do.	30	200	Now in Indian Territory, west.
Sacs and Foxes, do.	6,400	2,373	do. do. do.
Pottawatomies and Chippewas, Indiana and Illinois	3,900	4,680	do. do. do.
Creeks, Georgia, and Alabama	20,000	25,000	do. do. do.
Cherokees, Georgia, Alabama, Tennessee, and North Carolina	9,000	19,130	{ Indian Territory, west; about 1,600 of this number live in North Carolina.
Choctaws, Mississippi, and Alabama ..	21,000	17,000	{ Indian Territory west; about 1,600 of this number live in Mississippi, or east.
Chickasaws, Mississippi	3,635	4,700	Indian Territory, west.
Seminole, Florida	5,000	3,000	{ do. do. about 500 of this number live in Florida.

* The total Indian population in 1780 was estimated at 76,000.

STATEMENT—continued.

NAMES OF TRIBES, AND LOCATION IN 1825.	1825.	1833.	PRESENT LOCATION, AND REMARKS.
	NUMBER.	NUMBER.	
Biloxi, Louisiana.....	55	}	It is believed there are but few Indians now in Louisiana.
Apolishe, do.	45		
Pascagoulas, do.	131		
Addes, do.	27		
Yatamees, do.	36		
Coshatties, do.	180		
Caddoes, do.	450		
Delawares, do.	51		
Choctaws, do.	178		
Shawnees, do.	110		
Natchitoches, do.	25		
Quapaws, do.	97		
Plankeshaws, do.	1,800	1,132	Now in Indian Territory, west.
Delawares, Missouri.....	2,200	475	{ Numbered with Shawnees and Senecas above.
Kickapoos, do.	1,383		
Shawnees, do.	327	151	Now in Indian Territory, west.
Weas, do.	1,100	437	do. do. do.
Iowas, do.	5,200	4,941	do. do. do.
Ozages, Arkansas Territory and Missouri.....	297	100	do. do. do.
Plankeshaws, do.	6,000		{ Numbered with those of Georgia, &c., above.
Cherokees, Arkansas Territory.....	700	314	Now in Indian Territory, west.
Quapaws, do.		1,375	Indian Territory, west.
Kansas.....		55	do. do.
Pecorias.....		8,000	Minnesota Territory, &c.
Sioux.....		8,500	do. do.
Chippewas.....		165	Indian Territory, west.
Stockbridges, Munsees, and Christian Indians.....		1,000	do. do.
Ottos and Missourias.....		1,300	do. do.
Omahas.....		4,500	do. do.
Pawnees.....		978	Wisconsin.
Onetdas.....		400	do.
Stockbridges and Munsees.....		100	Alabama.
Creeks.....		100,000	California—estimated number.
California Indians.....		23,000	{ Oregon and Washington Territories, estimated number.
Oregon and Washington Indians.....		11,500	Utah Territory—estimated number.
Utah Indians.....		45,000	New Mexico Territory—do.
New Mexico Indians.....		29,000	Texas—do.
Texas Indians.....		43,430	{ Blackfeet, Sioux, and other tribes—estimated number.
Indians of Missouri valley.....		20,000	{ Kioways, Comanches, Pawnees, and others—estimated number.
Indians of the plains or Arkansas river.....			
Whole number of both sexes and all ages.....	120,306	400,764	

NOTE.—The great difference in the several aggregates must be accounted for in the extension of the territorial limits of the United States by the acquisition of Texas, &c., bringing with it an increased Indian population; and, further, in the fact that the report of Mr. McKenney for 1825 does not appear to have embraced the tribes of Missouri Valley, the Plains, Oregon, &c., then a part of the United States.

ART. IV.—THE FIRST SETTLEMENT OF KENTUCKY.

NARRATIVE OF AN ADVENTURE IN KENTUCKY IN
THE YEAR 1775.

We are indebted to Saml. R. Walker, of New Orleans, for a very interesting manuscript, prepared by his grandfather, the Hon. Felix Walker of North Carolina, for some time a member of Congress, and one of the earliest pioneers in the Western wilds. Our readers will be pleased with such a memento of the "hunter times" of that great State, rendered illustrious by the achievements of Boone and his compeers. We have published several such sketches in the past.—Ed.

In the month of February in that year, Captain William Twetty, Samuel Coburn, James Bridges, Thomas Johnson, John Hart, William Hicks, James Peeke, and myself, set out from Rutherford County, North Carolina, to explore a country by the name of Leowvisay, greatly renowned and highly spoken of as the best quality of land, abounding in game, now the State of Kentucky.

We placed ourselves under the care and direction of Captain Twetty, an active and enterprising woodsman, of good original mind and great benevolence, and although a light habited man, in strength and agility of bodily powers was not surpassed by any of his day and time, well calculated for the enterprise.

We proceeded to Watawgo river, a tributary stream of Holsteen, to the residence of Colonel Charles Robertson, now in the State of Tennessee, where a treaty was held by Colonel Richard Henderson and his associates, with the Cherokee tribe of Indians, for the purchase of that section of country we were going to visit, then called the Bloody Ground, so named from the continual wars and quarrels of the hunting parties of Indians of different tribes who all claimed the ground as their own, and the privilege of hunting the game; who murdered and plundered each other, as opportunity offered.

We continued at Watawgo during the treaty, which lasted about twenty days. Among others, there was a distinguished chief called Atticulaculla, the Indian name, known to the white people by the name of the Little Carpenter—in allusion, say the Indians, to his deep, artful, and ingenious diplomatic abilities, ably demonstrated in negotiating treaties with the white people, and influence in their national councils; like as a white carpenter could make every notch and joint fit in wood, so he could bring all his views to fill and fit their places in the political machinery of his nation. He was the

most celebrated and influential Indian among all the tribes then known; considered as the Solon of his day. He was said to be about ninety years of age, a very small man, and so lean and light habited, that I scarcely believe he would have exceeded more in weight than a pound for each year of his life. He was marked with two large scores or scars on each cheek, his ears cut and banded with silver, hanging nearly down on each shoulder, the ancient Indian mode of distinction in some tribes and fashion in others. In one of his public talks delivered to the whites, he spoke to this effect: he was an old man, had presided as chief in their council, and as president of his nation for more than half a century, had formerly been appointed agent and envoy extraordinary to the king of England on business of the first importance to his nation; he crossed the big water, arrived at his destination, was received with great distinction, had the honor of dining with his majesty and the nobility; had the utmost respect paid him by the great men among the white people; had accomplished his mission with success; and from the long standing in the highest dignities of his nation, he claimed the confidence and good faith in all and every thing he would advance in support of the rightful claims of his people to the Bloody Ground, then in treaty to be sold to the white people. His name is mentioned in the life of General Marion, at a treaty held with the Cherokees at Kewee, in South Carolina, in the year 1762 or 3. The treaty being concluded and the purchase made, we proceeded on our journey to meet Col. Daniel Boon, with other adventurers, bound to the same country: accordingly we met and rendezvoused at the Long Island on Holsteen river, united our small force with Col. Boon and his associates, his brother, Squire Boon, and Col. Richard Callaway, of Virginia. Our company, when united, amounted to 30 persons. We then, by general consent, put ourselves under the management and control of Col. Boon, who was to be our pilot and conductor through the wilderness, to the promised land; perhaps no adventurers since the days of Don Quixote, or before, ever felt so cheerful and elated in prospect; every heart abounded with joy and excitement in anticipating the new things we would see, and the romantic scenes through which we must pass; and, exclusive of the novelty of the journey, the advantages and accumulations ensuing on the settlement of a new country was a dazzling object with many of our company. Under the influence of these impressions we went our way rejoicing, with transporting views of our success, taking our leave of the civilized world for a season.

About the 10th of March we put off from the Long Island, marked our track with our hatchets, crossed Clinch and

Powell's river, over Cumberland mountain, and crossed Cumberland river—came to a watercourse called, by Col. —, Rockcastle river; killed a fine bear on our way, camped all night, had an excellent supper.

On leaving that river, we had to encounter and cut our way through a country of about 20 miles, entirely covered with dead brush, which we found a difficult and laborious task. At the end of which we arrived at the commencement of a cane country, traveled about 30 miles through thick cane and reed, and as the cane ceased, we began to discover the pleasing and rapturous appearance of the plains of Kentucky. A new sky and strange earth seemed to be presented to our view. So rich a soil we had never seen before; covered with clover in full bloom, the woods were abounding with wild game—turkeys so numerous that it might be said they appeared but one flock, universally scattered in the woods. It appeared that nature, in the profusion of her bounty, had spread a feast for all that lives, both for the animal and rational world. A sight so delightful to our view and grateful to our feelings, almost inclined us, in imitation of Columbus, in transport to kiss the soil of Kentucky, as he hailed and saluted the sand on his first setting his foot on the shores of America. The appearance of the country coming up to the full measure of our expectations, and seemed to exceed the fruitful source of our imaginary prospects.

We felt ourselves as passengers through a wilderness just arrived at the fields of Elysium, or at a garden where was no forbidden fruit. Nothing can furnish the contemplative mind with more sublime reflections, than nature unbroken by art; we can there trace the wisdom of the Great Architect in the construction of his works in nature's simplicity, which, when he had finished, he pronounced all good. But, alas! fond man! the vision of a moment made dream of a dream, and shadow of a shade! Man may appoint, but One greater than man can disappoint. A sad reverse overtook us two days after, on our way to Kentucky river. On the 25th March, 1775, we were fired on by the Indians, in our camp asleep, about an hour before day. Captain Twetty was shot in both knees, and died the third day after. A black man, his body servant, killed dead; myself badly wounded; our company dispersed. So fatal and tragical an event cast a deep gloom of melancholy over all our prospects, and high calculations of long life and happy days in our newly-discovered country were prostrated; hope vanished from the most of us, and left us suspended in the tumult of uncertainty and conjecture. Col. Boon, and a few others, appeared to possess firmness and fortitude. In our calamitous situation, a circumstance occurred one morning after our

misfortunes, that proved the courage and stability of our few remaining men (for some had gone back). One of our men, who had run off at the fire of the Indians on our camp, was discovered peeping from behind a tree, by a black woman belonging to Colonel Callaway, while gathering small wood. She ran in, and gave the alarm of Indians. Colonel Boon instantly caught his rifle, ordered the few men to form, take trees, and give battle, and not to run till they saw him fall. They formed agreeably to his directions, and I believe they would have fought with equal bravery to any Spartan band ever brought to the field of action, when the man behind the tree announced his name, and came in. My situation was critical and dangerous, being then a youth, three hundred miles from white inhabitants. My friend and guardian, Captain Twetty, taken dead from my side, my wounds pronounced by some to be mortal, produced very serious reflections. Yet withal I retained firmness to support me under the pressure of distress, and did not suffer me to languish in depression of mind.

But where shall I begin, or where can I end, in thanks and grateful acknowledgments to that benign and merciful Protector who spared and preserved me in the blaze of danger and in the midst of death! I trust I shall remember that singular and protecting event, with filial sensations of gratitude, while I retain my recollection. We remained at the same place twelve days; I could not be removed sooner without the danger of instant death. At length I was carried in a litter between two horses, twelve miles, to Kentucky river, where we made a station, and called it Boonsborough, situated in a plain on the south side of the river, wherein was a lick with two sulphur springs strongly impregnated. On entering the plain we were permitted to view a very interesting and romantic sight. A number of buffaloes, of all sizes, supposed to be between two and three hundred, made off from the lick in every direction; some running, some walking, others loping slowly and carelessly, with young calves playing, skipping, and bounding through the plain. Such a sight some of us never saw before, nor perhaps never may again. But to proceed, Colonel Richard Henderson, Colonel Luttrell, from North Carolina; Captain Wm. Cock, since the Honorable Judge Cock, of Tennessee, and Colonel Thomas Slaughter, of Virginia, arrived in the month of April with a company of about thirty men. Our military forces, when united, numbered about sixty or sixty-five men, expert riflemen. We lived plentifully on wild meat, buffalo, bear, deer, and turkey, without bread or salt, generally in good health, until the month of July, when I left the country.

Colonel Richard Henderson, being the chief proprietor in

the purchase of the bloody ground (indeed so to us), acted as Governor, called an assembly, by election of members, out of our small numbers; organized a government, convened the assembly in May, 1775, consisting of eighteen members, exclusive of the speaker, passed several laws for the regulation of our little community, well adapted to the policy of an infant government.

This assembly was held under two shade trees, in the plains of Boonsborough. This was the first feature of civilization ever attempted in what is now called the Western Country.

This small beginning, that little germ of policy, by a few adventurers from North Carolina, has given birth to the now flourishing State of Kentucky. From that period the population increased with such rapidity, that in less than twenty years it became a State.

In justice to Colonel Henderson, it may be said, that his message or address to the assembly alluded to was considered equal to any of like kind ever delivered to any deliberate body in that day and time.

In the sequel and conclusion of my narrative I must not neglect to give honor to whom honor is due. Colonel Boon conducted the company under his care through the wilderness, with great propriety, intrepidity, and courage; and was I to enter an exception to any part of his conduct, it would be on the ground that he appeared void of fear and of consequence—too little caution for the enterprise. But let me, with feeling recollection and lasting gratitude, ever remember the unremitting kindness, sympathy, and attention paid to me by Colonel Boon in my distress. He was my father, my physician, and friend; he attended me as his child, cured my wounds by the use of medicines from the woods, nursed me with paternal affection until I recovered, without the expectation of reward. Gratitude is the only tribute I can pay to his memory. He is now beyond the praise or the blame of mortals, in that world unknown from whose bourne no traveler returns. I also was kindly treated by all my companions, particularly John Kennedy. From Captain Cock I received kind and friendly attentions.

We continued in our station; our men were out viewing and exploring the country, choosing such tracts of land as suited them, plenty for all, and thought all was our own.

Colonel James Herod, my old acquaintance in North Carolina, came up to see me, tarried a few days. Being a little recovered, I went home with him to his station, since called Herodsburch, where he had a few men. I tarried there two weeks, and returned to Boonsborough. These two

stations contained the whole population of that country, which did not exceed in number one hundred men.

The company in our station continued to traverse the country through woods and wilds, choosing their lots of future inheritance, until the month of July, when I returned home to my father's residence in North Carolina, and have not seen Kentucky since, which I have often regretted.

I have been often solicited to make a publication of this adventure, but still declined. Until late, there appears something like it in the newspapers, which is not correct.

I therefore thought it incumbent on me, as one of the company, and in possession of all the facts, to make this statement, and give it publicity, which I know to be truth by hard experience; and perhaps I may be the last solitary individual of that number left to give a correct relation of that adventure.

ART. V.—EARLY LIFE IN THE SOUTHWEST.

No. V.

CAPTAIN HENRY S. BROWN, PIONEER OF TEXAS.

THE West, South, and Southwest have been fruitful in the production of men, more or less uneducated, yet distinguished for practical wisdom, boldness, and patriotism. Great numbers of them will soon be forgotten forever, though the aggregate result of their labors may long signalize their collective memory. That a bold and honest pioneer, after spending his life 'mid scenes of danger and suffering—where trials and hardships are met at every stream, on every hill, and in every dale, devoting his time and means to opening the wilderness to civilization—should go down to his wild and untombed grave, and thence be forgotten, to me has ever been a most melancholy reflection. I honor the noble pioneers of the Southwest, especially the pioneers of Texas, those premonitors of our great American institutions and freedom.

In this number, by permission of your regular contributor, it is proposed to devote a brief space to one of that class of men of whom I have been speaking.

HENRY S. BROWN was born, as I have been informed, on the 8th of March, 1793, in Mason county, Ky., of respectable parents. His father, Caleb Brown, lived to the age of 78;

and his grandfather, Edward Brown, of Baltimore county, Md., removing to Kentucky in 1780, died in 1823, at the advanced age of 89 years. Henry's mother was the daughter of Col. Henry Stephenson, of Maryland, and his grandmother a Durbin, of whose family the Rev. Dr. J. P. Durbin, of Baltimore, is one. At the age of fourteen, Henry lost his mother, and was left in a new country, without education, and thrown upon his own resources. He displayed, at an early age, that restlessness, boldness, and spirit, which characterized him through life. Restless and impetuous, generous and noble, he was ever ready for a wrestle, a foot-race, a target, or an encounter with the wily red man of the West,—always ready for any emergency. At an early day, I think in 1810, he left Kentucky and took up his abode in the forks of the Missouri and Mississippi rivers, in the county of St. Charles. That was then an exposed frontier, and during the war of 1812-15, suffered much from the forays of the Indians of Missouri and Illinois. Among the first volunteers in the field, Henry S. Brown, the favorite of his frontier comrades, was prominent. Through the campaigns of that service he passed with great *eclat*, as a brave and daring young man; and at Fort Clark, now Peoria, Il., he distinguished himself by one of the most daring acts of the day. The colonel in command, while the garrison was besieged by a superior Indian force, was anxious to know the number and exact position of the enemy, who were protected from sight and danger by a neighboring wood and ravine extending near a mile in front of the fort, in the prairie. But who would venture out? No one had done so for some days without being killed. Various experienced frontiersmen were called upon, but declined the effort, as too hazardous; but the moment the matter came to the knowledge of young Brown, then in his twentieth year, he offered his services, which were gladly accepted. Mounted on a good horse, he dashed forth, made a complete reconnoissance of the position of the enemy, passing round in their rear, and allowing them time to cut him off from the fort. Having discharged his duty, and turned the point to return to the fort, he found the prairie filled with the savage foes, ready to annihilate him. Undaunted as the lion, he reigned up the noble steed, carelessly pursuing his way till within gun-shot of the Indians, when, suddenly rising in his stirrups, waving his hat in bold defiance, he presented his piece, and darted with lightning-speed through the crowd, while showers of bullets, and the mighty war-whoop, were hurled at him, but in vain. His noble daring confounded the red-men, and their aim was unsteady. Brown reached the

gate in safety, and was welcomed with long and loud huzzas. In every emergency he manifested the same heroism.

In 1814, he was married in St. Charles county, and at the close of the war, began trading to New Orleans and the lower country, taking down large amounts of stock and western produce, and continued in that business, with varied success, till 1824, removing, however, in 1819, to Pike county.

Having met with severe reverses, and becoming acquainted with Gen. Austin, of Texas, he visited that country in the winter of 1824-5, with a large stock of Mexican and Indian goods, having in company his brother John, afterwards known in Texas as Waco Brown.

After procuring the necessary animals, guides, and assistants, Capt. Brown determined to send his brother John, or *Waco*, into the Camanche country with their Indian goods, while he would take a caravan into Mexico.

Both parties left the Brazos river about the same time in April, 1825.

John Brown made a successful trip into the Camanche country, some 350 miles above San Felipe, exchanged his goods for horses, mules, buffalo-robbs and peltries, having been most kindly received and hospitably treated by the Indians. He then began his inward march, with three men, and his immense cavalcade. Some three or four days on the march, he discovered indications going to show that he was followed by a lurking enemy; and on the same night, about twelve, he was attacked by a large band of Indians, leaving him no alternative but flight. His men (Andrew Scott, James Musick and Thomas Jamison) succeeded in escaping together, and reached the settlements in due season, supposing Brown dead.

Some two months later, Capt. Brown returned from Monterey, in Mexico, and instead of meeting his brother, was informed of his robbery and supposed death, news well calculated to unnerve the stoutest heart.

Capt. Brown, however, had seen too much of danger, and possessed too determined a spirit to be easily intimidated. His course was soon marked out. He resolved to know his brother's fate, and, if possible, to recover him, if living.

For this purpose, he raised and equipped twenty of the most experienced and daring men in Austin's Colony, and started with an outfit for three months. He struck directly into the Indian country, and had advanced some three hundred miles, encountering and defeating several small parties of warriors, when one of those rainy seasons peculiar to that region, opened upon him, and continued unceasingly for eleven days. The consequences were, their supplies were

spoiled, the streams were rendered impassable, and the country became too boggy to allow of further operations. Without accomplishing the object in view, or gaining any information in regard to his brother's fate, he was compelled to abandon the enterprise, and return to the Brazos, believing his brother to be bleaching on the mountain wilds of Texas.

Capt. Brown having been very successful in his Mexican trip, had acquired a vast herd of horses and mules for the Louisiana market. These were herded till about July, 1826, when he designed driving them in. About noon, on a pleasant July day, while preparing for his departure for Louisiana, in the town of San Felipe a horseman was seen rapidly advancing from the northwest several miles distant. As there were no settlements in that direction, curiosity among the quiet villagers was soon on tiptoe, to know whence came the stranger. He soon arrived, and from his costume and long flowing hair, was pronounced a genuine Indian. Coming directly up to the group of assembled spectators, the horseman's eye ran rapidly over them; then dashing up to Capt. Brown, he dismounted, and with extended arms, exclaimed, "Why, brother! don't you know me?" A long embrace and grateful tears, were the only response. John's story was short. At the time of the attack on his party, he escaped for the time being, but from a confirmed lameness in one leg, was unable to travel much on foot, and he was soon discovered and captured by a war-party of the hostile Wacos. He had managed to gain their confidence, and was allowed occasionally to pursue the chase; and now, after thirteen months' captivity, had come down with a robbing party, from whom he had escaped the previous night, and now gave such directions as to their intended route, as to enable a party, now promptly raised by Capt. Brown, to pursue, overhaul, and kill all of them, except a single messenger, who escaped by dint of hard riding. Such was the sequel to poor John's long captivity. He died in San Antonio in 1831.

From this time till 1832, Capt. Brown pursued the Mexican trade, meeting with many reverses and narrow escapes, frequently commanding parties against the Indians, and often giving the red men reason to dread his prowess. One of these expeditions he conducted, in 1829, into the mountains; another up the Brazos, in 1830; one or two in 1831, from Gonzales,—always manifesting the same prompt and gallant disposition to meet the foes of his fellow-men in deadly strife.

At the time of the troubles between the Texan colonists and the Mexican troops in 1832, Capt. Brown commanded the rifles, a body of the most daring sharp-shooters ever

enrolled in Texas, or elsewhere, who immortalized themselves at the battle of Velasco. Colonel Ugartechea, with over three hundred Mexican troops, was strongly fortified at Velasco. The colonists numbered 112 men, of whom Capt. Brown commanded about 80; the remainder, under Capt. Russell, operated from a schooner in the Brazos river, the whole being under the lead of Col. John Austin. Brown, under cover of the night, led his noble band to within seventy yards of the fort, and placed them under the feeble protection of a few drift logs on the beach. There, at dawn of day, he dealt a deadly fire upon the fort, his men shooting with a precision perhaps never surpassed; so deadly was their aim, that a Mexican durst not raise his head above the battlements. Many, in so doing, were shot in the eyes and forehead. Others, more cautious, would raise their hands to draw the fire; and over forty were thus shot in the hand. The conduct of the tried and undaunted Brown, on this occasion, and especially in the noble example he set the youthful members of his company (of whom there were many), drew upon him the spontaneous admiration of his own men and the country, and a brilliant victory crowned the day.

This was his last adventure on the tented field; though I have omitted very many of the most interesting incidents of his pioneer life. Indeed it is almost impossible to gather more than a meager account of the events in the life of any of our early pioneers. Most of them and their immediate followers have gone the way of all flesh, and there are no records to appeal to. Capt. Brown died at Columbia, Brazoria county, July 26, 1834, aged but 41 years. He had enjoyed the confidence and friendship of the Austins, Whartons, Bowie, Travis, Smith, and the people generally, and was lamented as a valuable man to the colonies of Texas. John Henry Brown, editor of the *Indianola Bulletin*, is one of his only two surviving sons.

ART. VI.—THE TELEGRAPH.

[Continued from Vol. XV.]

THE mariners' compass was discovered as early as the twelfth century, but was not improved until the time of Norman, who was the first to discover the *dip* or *inclination* of the needle. Columbus, 80 years earlier, had become acquainted, for the first time, with the *variation* or *declination* of the needle. It was when about 200 leagues from the island of

Ferro, that he remarked the extraordinary conduct of the compass-needle; and to him Humboldt ascribes the honor of not only "having discovered a line without magnetic variation, but also of having, by his considerations on the progressive increase of westerly declination, in receding from that line, given the first impulse to the study of terrestrial magnetism in Europe." Thus, as we have said, although the mariners' compass had been known in the twelfth century, three hundred years were allowed to elapse before the discovery was made that the needle would dip from a horizontal plane toward the earth, and four hundred years before the discovery was made that the poles varied from a true direction north and south.

Nations had now engaged extensively in foreign commerce and ocean navigation. It became necessary to improve on the known qualities of nautical science. To undertake long voyages, dependent on the accuracy of the compass, without being in possession of the secrets of terrestrial phenomena which so strangely influenced the needle in different latitudes, was equivalent almost to sending forth a vessel upon the waters without a rudder. Voyages were accomplished without disaster probably as frequently then as now; but the navigator's course was deviatory, tortuous; and his time from port to port, with valuable cargoes of merchandise and human life, much prolonged. And every hour upon the mighty waters is fraught with danger and death. Norman, who styled himself Hydrographer, published a work in 1576, in which terrestrial magnetism was treated at length, but in a crude and vague manner. However, his work was regarded as the navigator's standard until 1700, when Robert Halley published his generalized observations on the variations of the needle. Halley's hypothesis was, that "our globe is a great piece of clock-work, by which the poles of an internal magnet are carried round in a cycle of determinate but unknown period." He put it, according to his opinion, past doubt, that "the globe of the earth is one grand magnet, having *four* magnetic poles of attraction, two near each pole of the equator; and that in those parts of the world which lie adjacent to any one of these magnetical poles, the needle is chiefly governed thereby, the nearest pole being always predominant over the more remote." This hypothesis was maintained until 1811, when, induced by a prize proposed by the Royal Danish Academy, M. Hansteen undertook to reconstruct the whole theory of terrestrial phenomena, and improve the science of navigation. The results of his labors of eight years appeared in his great work, published in 1819, entitled, "Upon the Magnetism of the Earth." Hansteen confirmed

much of what Halley had previously maintained in his hypothesis—namely, that the whole magnetic system is in motion; that the moving force is very great, extending its effects from pole to pole; and that its motion is not sudden, but gradual and regular. Hansteen's work proved more than this. It clearly showed that the earth's magnetism is neither stable nor permanent. In its sublime mystery is involved constant and varied changes, and of a nature so rapid, that it is necessary to assume epochs within which time all celestial and terrestrial observations should be made and repeated. In a chart to his great work, Hansteen furnishes lines of variation of the magnetic force for that period, 1787. In this chart the western line of *no variation** begins in latitude 60° , west of Hudson's Bay, and proceeds in an almost straight line till it bends round the eastern part of South America, a little south of the Equator. The eastern line of *no variation*, on the contrary, is tortuous and irregular, full of curious bends and double sinuosities, plainly indicating the varied intensity of local magnetic forces. It begins in latitude 60° , south of New Holland; bisects that island in its center; extends through the Indian Archipelago, in doing which, by its sinuosities, *it crosses the equator three times*; thence stretches along the coast of China, sweeping in a semicircular curve to latitude 71° , whence it again diverges to the south, and returns northward with a semicircular curve which terminates in the White Sea. Any one who will examine this subject, even in the abstract, must be convinced how important it is to nautical science that these phenomena should be simplified to the commonest understanding, and how immeasurably commerce will be benefited, when the whole terrestrial magnetic mystery shall be clearly and accurately expounded to the living or prospective generations.

"The declination, the dip, and the intensity, all undergo variations at the same place, some of which are regular, and others irregular. Some occurring through long periods of time, and others at short intervals. In the year 1657, the declination needle pointed due north in London; it then commenced moving westward, and continued to do so till the close of the last century. Its variation is now decreasing. The daily variation consists of an oscillation eastward or westward of the mean position, the amount of which varies with the times of the day, and is different in different places. Generally, the greatest declination eastward is between 6 and 9 in the morning, and westward about 1 in the afternoon,

* Drap. Phil. p. 284—287.

returning toward the east till 8, P. M. It is never greater than a few minutes; and the needle is stationary at night.*"

Hence the necessity of stated epochs for the redetermination of the magnetic poles, and consequently of longitudes. But since electricity has been drawn in, as an active aid to the labors of philosophers, and made to subserve the great cause of celestial and terrestrial science, we have no doubt that many of the primary problems which have puzzled scholarship for hundreds and thousands of years, will be rendered as plain and appreciable as questions of multiplication and subtraction in simple arithmetic.† And had the discov-

* Draper.

† A curious philosophical question has lately arisen, and which continues to occupy the attention of scientific minds. It is this: Will electricity ascend in a body from the earth, and discharge itself in the air? The question originated in a house in Newark, N. J., being struck by lightning, the course of the fluid being from the basement of the building upward, until it had spent itself—one stream through a door on the first floor, and another through the roof of the house, whence, as stated, it ascended the lightning rod. The incident naturally engaged much attention, as such a phenomenon, if truly narrated or explained, had never before been recorded. There appears to be no doubt as to the course of the fluid; for it left unmistakable traces of an upward tendency by perforations with the splinters fringing the holes on the upper surface, and leaving a clear surface below. Other evidences of a similar character are equally strong in the premises. The real secret, however, does not seem to have been reached in the discussion which has succeeded the incident. E. Meriam, Esq., of New York, the Electrician, has doubtless come nearest to a correct hypothesis on the subject. He says,—

"The house is of wood, painted white, is two stories high—about 25 feet, by about 32—has a deep basement, and is surmounted by a cupola. The roof comes to a point in the center, under the cupola, and is covered with shingles nailed on. The rod extends more than two feet above the cupola, and has several points, all of which are covered with a thick coating of white paint!! The rod is also covered with a thick coating of paint until it reaches the roof; and from this point to where it rises in a curve to pass over the eave-trough, it is wholly free from paint. From a little above the eave-trough to the ground, the rod has a thick and hard coat of white paint upon it. The rod is sound iron, and about three fourths of an inch in diameter. The cupola is furnished with a small tin leader which discharges the rain water falling on it, upon the roof.

"The lightning descended directly from the cloud, and was accompanied by a heavy clap of thunder, to that portion of the rod on the roof which is unpainted, and followed it until it reached the paint; here it left the rod and followed the nails of the shingles, and descended to a large iron clamp, made of heavy bar iron, on the plate, and followed the plate from clamp to clamp. Nearly under the rod, and but a few feet from it, is a large sheet iron stove and pipe, stored in the attic; the stove, without doubt, received a part of the discharge from the rod, and from the attic it passed down a column of rarified air, in the center of the house, to the lowest brass stair carpet-rod, and from this rod, under the oil cloth of the hall, tearing it, as is its usual practice in all such cases, and descended on the floor nails to the basement, which is in three apartments—two are dry cellars, and the third a large kitchen, heated by a fire in a large stove. In passing into the basement, it threw down the upper plastering of the kitchen, and passed to two heavy cast-iron weights of a dumb-waiter near by, and from thence to the leaden water-pipe, from thence to an iron sink and to a metal pump into the earth; all these conductors were near together. The lightning also entered the other two apartments of the basement, in one of which it split the top of a stud, and divided it accurately at the termination of the point of a

ery of the electro-magnetic properties of lightning been deferred another century, science would have been retarded in due proportion.

nail. A large brass kettle lay on the cellar floor, at the foot of the stud, and against it was a large iron kettle, both good conductors, and in immediate contact with a damp flooring. In the other apartment it splintered the studding, at the foot of which lay a large iron tea-kettle. On the shelves here were several pieces of iron.

"This lightning, as I have before said, did not come from the ground—I have never known a building or any other object to be struck by under-ground lightning. Lightning can only come from the vast depths of the earth where the earth's crust is rent by terrific earthquakes or volcanic action."

The incrustation of paint on the lightning rod, was undoubtedly the cause of the evil, or erratic course of the fluid. The lightning rod, if it had been free of this coating, would have answered all the purposes of a conductor; for we are assuming that the fluid proceeded downward from the clouds, and not upward from the earth. Electricity when released from the clouds, seeks that which is the most attractive to it. Sometimes these attractions prevail in the air in greater abundance than at other times. This we see to be the case during heavy thunder storms, when the regions of the air are hung with dense clouds; and also on occasions when they are comparatively free from clouds. In the first instance, the zig-zag track of the fluid is produced by the attractive and counter-attractive qualities of the surcharged bodies striving for mastery, in order to attract into their receptacles the discharged fluid. In the second instance, the track of the fluid is in a straight line, because there is no local, predominant, attractive or counter-attractive bodies to influence its direction, save the single or isolated cloud which receives it at a distance. When a number of clouds are floating together there is a partial overcoming of each other's attractive powers, which causes the zig-zag direction, until the fluid is received by the still more powerful attractives which the earth affords. When clouds traverse space wide asunder, there is no such local conflict, and hence the straight track of the fluid to the distant cloud, or direct to the earth. Mr. Meriam has explained why the fluid did not follow the lightning-rod—a position which science will sustain. Rain drops are excellent conductors; and in the case stated, the descent of the electric current was aided from clamp to clamp and object to object by them. We know that lightning is more apt to strike the ground while rain is falling, especially in torrents, than when there is no rain. When the fluid had reached the ground, it may have encountered some non-conducting substance, as a stratum of sand; and the damp cellar* being near, probably with a clay (conducting) flooring, it naturally sought that locality. Thence its course was upward, drawn thence by attractive bodies, such as nails and metallic wares, until it had spent itself in the manner stated—either in the air, or by a return to the earth. The electricity of the earth is always in a state of repose, or a positive condition. Were it otherwise, the phenomena would almost constantly be presented—at least upon the recurrence of every thunder storm—of the terrestrial fluid upheaving and rending the earth's surface in its attempts to relieve itself of a superincumbent load of negative electricity, and to regain its disturbed equilibrium. We can easily conceive that frightful disasters would thus constantly happen—that terrestrial shocks and earthquakes would be of hourly frequency—that cities would be in daily jeopardy of being tossed into ruins—rivers changed from their courses—mountains swallowed up in gulfs—and even continents shaken with these efforts of the majesty of the earth. If, indeed, the electric fluid which injured the house in Newark had proceeded from its abodes in our planet, the house would have been rent to its base, and the shock of the mighty rent have been felt even in New York city.

* Mr. Meriam says "two dry cellars." But the cellars were humid withal, as it was raining; and if with clay floorings, that fact would have been sufficient, with the metal attractions, to have enticed the fluid, after it had encountered the earth, especially if it had struck a non-conducting or sandy substance.

But we have named only a few of the philosophical and mechanical experiments that have been made with electrical agents, since the invention of the telegraph. Russia has resolved on establishing a series of magnetic stations throughout the dominions of the empire and in Central Asia, in which, we are assured, the American electric plans will be wholly introduced. France and Germany (England led the way) are preparing to imitate this example. Again, it is announced that a machinist of Belgium has invented a locomotive propelled by electricity. We hear of schemes for lighting cities by electricity.* A project has been broached in England for lighting her light-houses with electricity, and of instituting a system of sea telegraphy by the same agent. We repeat the query, to what extent may not the original discovery be carried in its lateral connections and coincident aspects? Let us return to the uses and purposes of the telegraph.

Three crowned heads of Europe have conferred the honor upon this country of adopting the Morse invention. The King of Würtemburgh recently awarded the state medal to the author of the American system; upon which the *American Magazine* remarks, "The Grand Sultan of Turkey took the lead, both in the time of manifesting his appreciation of the invention, and in the high distinction bestowed upon the inventor. The King of Prussia followed, and, on establishing the electric telegraph throughout his dominions, directed that the American system shall be used wherever intelligence is transmitted through great distances. And now, the King of Würtemburgh adopts entire the American system. The German Telegraph Union, comprising all the states of Germany, after deliberating in convention at Vienna on the best system for their international correspondence, have come to the conclusion that none but the American system will fully accomplish their object. Professor Steinheil, the administrator-in-chief of the Austrian telegraphs, although himself the author of a telegraph, which has procured for him a world-wide and well-deserved fame, with a magnanimity which does him high honor, has given his opinion in favor of adopting the American system in Germany." The following is a translation of the official act:

"Extract from the protocol of the Convention of Deputies from the German Governments which met at Vienna in the month of October, 1851, for the establishment of a German Telegraph Union, &c.

"The governments of this Union give their mutual assur-

* A company has been formed in England to make gas from the decomposition of water by electricity.

ance to bring into operation, at the latest on the 1st of July, 1852, the direct transmission of telegraphic communications between the stations of the respective governments, so that transfers upon intermediate stations will be no longer required, whenever the lines are not previously occupied, so that each of the central stations can enter into communication with every other.

"To accomplish this, all the governments of the Telegraph Union adopt for the international correspondence upon each line, for the present, Morse's telegraph, with receiving magnets, registers, and uniform alphabet."

The telegraph, as a messenger, has a wide scope of duties to perform; and as a motive power, on land and on sea—in the machine-shop or as a domestic drudge—there remains for it yet stupendous achievements in store. As a messenger, the multiform character of its performances and their detail, are as amusing and novel as they are instructive and necessary in their ends. In the United States especially the great value of the telegraph is known and appreciated; for here it ramifies a country extending almost from perpetual frosts to eternal spring—from where snows and mountains of ice usurp more than half the year, to where the cactus and magnolia bloom nine months of the twelve. Here it is opposed by no obstacles which it does not surmount—mountains, rivers, forests, lakes, present themselves, and are triumphantly overcome. It leaps thousands of miles of distance at an impulse, and will, ere long, muse along the rivers of the mighty prairies and the wastes and solitudes which yet divide the population of the Atlantic ocean and the Pacific.

Let us take isolated and promiscuous instances of the utility of the telegraph, as a messenger and economist of time. On the occurrence of the recent Norwalk tragedy, a dispatch was forwarded from the station at that place, announcing the particulars of the fact. In an hour, the intelligence had spread over the whole Union, and had been repeated in almost every family circle before the close of the day. The reader is left to infer the appalling consequences of the affair in the agency it produced; but the blow fell upon the community almost simultaneously, and not by the slow and unequal process of the mails. This example will suffice for all of a similar character; and, heartless as it may seem, we deduce from the circumstances attending the casualty business reflections. If the announcement had been left to the tardy process of the mails, what evils might have flowed in the sequel, in the retarding of contracts, breaking of agreements, postponing projects of enterprise, confusing

preconcerted business arrangements, and causing a loss of time and treasure to thousands! "I was so unfortunate," wrote a merchant in New York, shortly after the accident, to his correspondent in Philadelphia, "as to hear of P——'s death by the affair, just in time to defer my departure for Europe. Of course, owing to this lamentable occurrence, M——, in New Orleans, would make all due allowance, and hasten to prepare for the exigency," &c. This letter related to an extensive cotton contract, on which depended a heavy purchase of merchandise in Great Britain. The integrity of a business house of many years' standing would have been jeopardized by the results of the tragedy, had not information of it been thus early and promptly transmitted to New Orleans and New York.

Some time since, a feud arose between two rival business houses in New York. In suppressing names, we will style them respectively Messrs. A. & Co. and Messrs. B. & Co. A. & Co., who were extensive dealers, and had been long established, were much annoyed by B. & Co., who had just gone into business on a large capital, and who took unfair means to obtain a portion of the former's patronage. A. & Co. had been induced to purchase largely of the paper of a third firm, which paper they indorsed, and used in their legitimate transactions. Subsequently, this firm suspended payments, and closed its doors. A. & Co. of course became responsible; and B. & Co. being aware of this, collected the paper, with what object, except to humiliate the elder firm, cannot be conjectured. But a sudden pressure ensued; and during the crisis, the paper having gone to maturity, B. & Co. presented it for redemption. A. & Co. at once resorted to the telegraph. By 2 o'clock the next day, owing to the promptness with which their dispatches had been responded to, they were in a condition to redeem their indorsed paper, without "the street" having been made aware that, twenty-four hours previously, they had suffered any pecuniary inconvenience whatever. The telegraph served them faithfully. They preserved their mercantile integrity, were enabled to continue their business without having excited an unjust suspicion that would have proved fatal to them, and in whose fall might have been dragged into bankruptcy other houses, whose engagements extended widely over the mercantile and industrial community.

We are not to regard these matters in the light of individual affairs merely, but consider them, as they should be considered, practically allied in their bearings with the general wealth, happiness, and prosperity of a people.

Last winter two years ago, a vessel, bound from Liver-

pool, was stranded off the eastern coast of Maine. It had been driven from its course by contrary winds; and being caught and wedged in by icebergs, was badly treated, and ultimately driven toward the shore in a leaky or sinking condition. Information of the threatened fate of the vessel and crew was obtained by a fisherman, who instantly dispatched intelligence of the fact to the nearest telegraph station; and in due time, while he prepared to render what assistance he could, relief came in the shape of two steam-tugs; and vessel and cargo, with a crew and passenger list of twenty-five to forty souls, were saved.

In a country in which industry and the arts are progressive—in which business is spread over a vast area, and thousands of miles interpose between one commercial emporium and another—the telegraph answers to a use the complexion of which is unique, and of American origin. A case occurs in point. A merchant, doing business in a town somewhere in Michigan, entered a wholesale store in New York, and stated that he was desirous of purchasing a lot of goods, on which he was prepared to pay fifty per cent., but not more. He had come to the metropolis, intending to deal with a firm with whom he had had previous transactions; but he ascertained, not, however, until after his arrival, that the firm had dissolved and retired from mercantile life—nor had he been able to obtain their address, for the purpose of having their recommendation. To an English ear, this would sound curious; it would look like the boldest assurance on one side, and—if a bargain were concluded on so uncertain a basis—of ineffable greenness on the other. But let us examine the matter more closely. A merchant, doing business two thousand miles from the seaport city where he purchases his goods, on being disappointed in the manner related, is placed in an awkward predicament. If he returns for testimonials, or waits for them from home, he incurs a heavy expense, and is subjected to a protracted delay. All this is a loss of money to him, which his limited means and the peculiar nature of his business will not justify. He is not merely a merchant, who dispenses his wares for cash or its equivalents, but a broker, commission dealer, and produce forwarder, in a small way. To him the farmer sells his grain, and expects his pay; the merchant in turn patronizes the miller, the shoemaker, the carpenter, and other local trades, who reciprocate by buying his teas, his coffee, his calicoes, and his cloths. Any supervening influence to interrupt this commerce, affects not merely a member of the federation of interests, but all. The delay of a fortnight, besides the absolute expenditure of money for his maintenance, subjects the

merchant to a loss of the sale of his goods during that interval, and the lapse is equally injurious to the branches of industry we have named, which are somewhat dependent on the merchant's promptitude and early payment, for their prosperity. The merchant is aware of this, and of the two evils he makes the experiment of opening a credit with a house to whom he is enabled to pay only one half the amount of the bill he is constrained to run up. The wholesale dealer listens to his case, and tells him to call in the course of an hour or two. He next dispatches a clerk to the mercantile agency, to ascertain whether Mr. Tape's (the applying merchant's) name is in their books; and if so, to discover in what pecuniary estimation he is held at home. The books are examined; but the name of Mr. Tape does not appear. At once the mercantile agent, or one of his subordinates, writes by telegraph to his correspondent in the village in which the merchant resides—these agencies are thus well organized—and makes the necessary inquiries. In the course of half an hour, word is transmitted back—"Tape good for ten thousand dollars;" and when the merchant, at the end of two hours, returns, with doubt and anxiety in his looks, he is told to make his selections, for the firm have concluded to accept his application. Here is another valuable feature of the telegraph; and while it is thus made to act the part of messenger, in conveying intelligence of a favorable character, it is often converted into an informer for the prevention of wisely-concocted and stupendous frauds.

Prior to the establishment of telegraph lines in the United States, cotton and stock gambling was conducted on a scale of extensiveness unparalleled in the history of commercial dishonesty. It has been computed that forty millions of dollars were annually involved needlessly and unrighteously in these speculations, and which the telegraph has served to lessen probably to one-twentieth their former magnitude. The checks and restraints thus imposed, have compelled a withdrawal of resources, and their employment in healthier and less immoral pursuits. And we must still bear in remembrance, that where available means are rendered active, not individuals solely, but whole communities, are the recipients of the benefits which accrue, or partakers of the evils which fraudulent schemes entail.

An importer contemplates a voyage to England, to lay in a heavy stock of merchandise. He takes orders for himself and a friend who is engaged in another branch of business. He reaches New York, and is about going on board the steamer which starts for Liverpool in the course of an hour. A dispatch is received by him at the moment he is settling

his hotel bill: "A. has failed; no prospect of meeting his liabilities." Thus the importer, instead of buying at a large outlay articles which he had been commissioned to purchase, saves his money and the time he would otherwise have wasted.

In the midst of heavy stock operations on change, a Philadelphia broker is informed by his Boston correspondent that "Massachusetts and Vermont Railroad stock unsaleable to-day at 60 cents. Rumored defalcation true—sell out at 60,"—or, "Rumored defalcation false—buy all you can at 60."

A person on a collecting tour, does not feel it important for him to neglect his calls, and return home every week to ascertain the domestic condition of his family. He is enabled, as frequently as he desires, to correspond by telegraph, without either inconvenience or heavy outlay. "Family all well? Anything new?" A few minutes after brings a reply: "Family all well. Nothing new." All this costs probably half a dollar, and the minds of the parties are relieved.

Mr. Morse mentions that, on the breaking out of the disturbances in Philadelphia in 1844, sealed dispatches were sent by express from the Mayor of that city to the President of the United States. "On the arrival of the express at Baltimore, the purport of the dispatches transpired; and while the express train was in preparation, the intelligence was sent on to Washington by telegraph, accompanied by an order from the president of the railroad company to prevent the burden train from leaving until the express train should arrive. The order was given and complied with. The express had a clear track; and the President and cabinet (being in council) had notice both of the fact, that important dispatches were on the way to them, and of the nature of those dispatches; so that when the express arrived, the answer was in readiness."

Again—"When the Hibernia steamer arrived at Boston, in January, 1847, with news of the scarcity in Great Britain, Ireland, and other parts of Europe, and with heavy orders for agricultural produce, the farmers in the interior of the State of New York, informed of the facts by magnetic telegraph, were thronging the streets of Albany with innumerable team-loads of grain almost as quickly after the arrival of the steamer at Boston as the news of that arrival could ordinarily have reached them."

During last autumn a company of English gentlemen suddenly made their appearance in Huntington county, Pennsylvania, and made proposals of an apparently advantageous nature to the proprietors, for the purchase of three or four well-known iron works in that region. The prices offered ex-

ceeded by 20 per cent. what the owners had, a few months previously, agreed to dispose of them for. One furnace alone had been held for sale at \$30,000, which, with its lands and improvements, had originally been valued at \$300,000. A day had been set apart for the meeting of the respective parties, though no agreement had been concluded as yet. On the evening preceding the day specified, Messrs. V—, I—, & Co., the largest of the iron masters, telegraphed to New York to ascertain whether any extraordinary movement had recently taken place in the iron trade, of which they had not been advised. The answer reported everything stationary; but early the next morning the firm received the following dispatch.

"New York July 1852.

"Liverpool steamer Arabia just in. Reports a rise in English iron of 20 per cent. A farther rise of 10 per cent., soon talked of. Heavy demands from the continent, among which Russia herself."

The English capitalists had ascertained the condition of the iron trade on the continent before the news had become public there. They knew that the prospective demand for the article would be great, that prices would largely increase, that in the United States eight thousand miles of railroad were to be supplied with rails, and that, as furnaces and rolling-mills were selling at that time, an immense profit could be realized; and they hastened their departure to the United States for the purpose of anticipating the intelligence, and entering into a stupendous scheme of speculation. The opportune service of the telegraph, frustrated their plans, and prevented the transfer of a million dollars' worth of property at a lamentable sacrifice.

ART. VII.—ON THE CONDITION OF THE COUNTRY, AS EXHIBITED BY THE PRESIDENT'S MESSAGE AND ACCOMPANYING DOCUMENTS.

THE last Annual Report of the Secretary of the Treasury, is one of the ablest documents ever emanating from that Department. It exhibits the financial affairs of the nation in a clear and business-like manner.

The estimated receipts for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1853, were as follows

From customs,	\$49,000,000 00
" lands,	2,000,000 00
" miscellaneous sources,	300,000 00
Balance in treasury July 1, 1852,	14,632,136 37

\$65,932,136 37

And the estimated expenditure,	60,560,056 86
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Estimated balance July 1, 1854,	\$5,372,079 51
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This balance to exist after applying \$7,199,477 77 to the redemption of the public debt.

The actual receipts for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1853, were as follows, viz.:

From customs,	\$58,931,865 52
" lands,	1,667,084 90
" miscellaneous sources,	738,623 89

Making the total receipts,	\$61,337,574 40
Add balance in treasury July 1, 1852,	14,632,136 37

Total sum for the service for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1853,	\$75,969,710 77
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The actual expenditures for the fiscal year 1853, were, viz.:

Civil list,	\$4,784,396 93
Foreign intercourse,	599,030 14
Miscellaneous,	11,792,369 70
Department of the Interior,	5,529,535 59
" of War,	9,947,290 87
" of the Navy,	10,891,639 59
Public debt,	10,482,555 39

	\$54,026,818 21
Balance in the treasury July 1, 1853,	\$21,942,892 56

The estimated receipts for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1854, were as follows:

From customs,	\$49,000,000 00
" lands,	2,000,000 00
" miscellaneous sources,	200,000 00
Add estimated balance July 1, 1853,	5,372,079,51

Total estimated sum for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1854, \$56,572,079 51

And the estimated expenditures were:

Balance of former appropriations,	\$6,879,883 28
Permanent and indefinite "	9,172,829 68
Specific appropriations asked for,	30,151,040 64
	46,203,753 60

Which would leave an estimated unexpended balance in the treasury on July 1, 1854, of \$10,368,325 91

The actual receipts for the first quarter of the fiscal year 1854, ending September 30, 1853, were as follows (as appears by statement B.), viz.:

From customs,	\$19,718,822 00
" lands,	1,489,562 05
" miscellaneous sources,	147,994 87

Making total receipts, \$21,356,378 92

To which add the actual balance in the treasury on the 1st July, 1853, 21,942,892 56

Making the total sum of \$43,299,271 48

The actual expenditures for the same first quarter were as follows, viz.:

Civil list, foreign intercourse, and miscellaneous, &c.,	\$4,381,091 62
Interior Department, Indians, and pensions,	846,213 01
War Department,	2,935,861 40
Navy Department,	3,140,129 35
Redemption of public debt,	3,778,088 32

\$15,081,383 70

Leaving a balance in the treasury September 30th, 1853, of \$28,217,887 78

The estimated receipts for the second, third, and fourth quarters of the fiscal year ending June 30, 1854, are as follows:

From customs,	\$37,000,000 00
" lands,	3,000,000 00
" miscellaneous sources,	300,000 00

\$40,300,000 00

To which add the balance in treasury Sept. 30, 1853, 28,217,887 78

Making a total sum of, \$68,517,887 78

The expenditures estimated by the departments for the second, third, and fourth quarters of the fiscal year ending June 30, 1854, are as follows:

Civil list and foreign intercourse, &c.,	\$13,570,833 54
Deficiencies in the Post-office Department,	1,895,445 63
Interior Department,	2,629,350 10
War Department,	12,874,817 22
Navy Department,	8,135,280 67
Public debt (interest),	3,145,556 00
" (redemption),	15,000,000 00

Total estimated expenditures, \$57,251,283 16

This will leave an estimated balance in the treasury on the 1st of July, 1854, of 11,266,604 62

The balance of the appropriations for the year ending June 30, 1853, which remained unexpended on that day, and which is liable to be expended in the year ending June 30, 1854, is 17,630,758 75

The specific appropriations for the year amount to 34,051,269 58

The indefinite appropriations for the year, are, as far as ascertained by actual payment to Oct. 1, 1853, \$5,100,425 75

As estimated for the residue of the year, 6,365,526 95

11,465,952 70

Making the whole amount of appropriations liable to be expended in the year 1854, \$63,147,981 03

The estimated receipts for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1855, are as follows:

From customs,	\$51,000,000 00
" lands,	3,500,000 00
" miscellaneous sources,	500,000 00

Making the sum of, \$55,000,000 00

Add the estimated balance in the treasury on the 1st of July, 1854, 11,266,604 62

This makes the total estimated resources for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1855, \$66,266,604 62

The estimated expenditures for the same year are as follows:

Balance of former appropriations, which will be expended this year,	\$6,865,126 44
Permanent and indefinite appropriations,	8,285,716 14
Specific appropriations asked for this year,	35,909,434 54

\$51,060,277 12

This sum is composed of the following particulars, viz.:

Civil list, foreign intercourse, and miscellaneous,	\$12,161,436 09
Expenses of collecting revenue from customs,	2,200,000 00
" " from lands,	129,900 00
Deficiency in the revenues of the Post-office Department,	2,700,000 00
Army proper, &c.,	11,989,397 50
Fortifications, ordnance, arming militia, &c.,	2,049,334 00
Improvements, &c.,	311,500 00
Indian Department,	1,784,471 84
Pensions,	1,876,072 95

Naval establishments, including dry docks and ocean steam mail contracts,	\$12,712,358 74
Interest on the public debt,	3,145,806 00
Making in all the sum of,	\$51,060,977 12

Leaving an estimated balance in the treasury, July 1, 1855, of \$15,206,327 50

To be increased about ten millions by that part of the appropriations not expended within the year, and subject to any reduction that may be made in the tariff for half the year, or to any sum which may be applied to the public debt during the year.

The public debt on the 1st of July, 1852, was as follows:

Loan of 1842,	\$8,198,686 02
" 1843,	6,222,931 35
" 1846,	4,999,139 71
" 1847,	26,214,050 00
" 1848,	15,740,000 00
Texan indemnity,	5,000,000 00
" not issued,	5,000,000 00
	\$71,374,807 09
Old funded and unfunded debt,	114,118 54
Treasury notes outstanding,	132,161 64
Debt of corporate cities,	780,000 00

\$72,401,087 27

The sums paid for redemption of the public debt during the fiscal year ending June 30, 1853, and the premium, &c., were as follows:

Loan of 1842,	\$167,495 60
" 1843,	4,296,862 50
" 1846,	68,200 00
" 1847,	1,688,650 00
" 1848,	193,300 00

Total stock redeemed, \$6,394,508 10

Premium on the same, \$420,498 64; since which time, and up to 3d December, 1853, the public debt has been reduced to \$56,336,157 52, leaving the public debt on the 3d December, 1853, as follows:

Loan of 1842,	\$6,872,135 54
" 1843,	92,800 00
" 1846,	4,048,400 00
" 1847,	20,738,700 00
" 1848,	14,444,491 80
Texan indemnity,	4,887,000 00
" not issued,	5,000,000 00
Debt of corporate cities,	24,000 00
Old funded and unfunded debt,	114,118 54
Treasury notes outstanding,	114,511 64

\$56,336,157 52

In relation to the redemption and purchase of the public debt, and the amount of premium paid for it, from the first of July, 1852, to the third of December, 1853, it appears that \$3,342,150 was redeemed and purchased from the 1st July, 1852, to the 4th of March, 1853, and \$12,722,779 75 from the 4th of March, 1853, to the 3d December, 1853.

In relation to the mode of doing business by his predecessor, Mr. Guthrie observes:

Within a few days after the 4th of March, 1853, it was ascertained that the sum of \$1,750,000 had been advanced by my predecessor to a broker in New York, and \$493,000 to a firm in Washington, for the purchase of the public debt.

These accounts have been closed, in part by the transfer of the stock agreed to be purchased, and in part by replacing the money in the public treasury. There has been no loss from these transactions; but it was considered that such an advance of money to agents for the purchase of the debt was of doubtful policy, and might become hazardous, and lead to a misapplication of the public funds, and to favoritism. It was determined not to continue that method of redeeming and purchasing the public debt. Public notice was at once given that the \$5,000,000 loan of 1843, bearing five per cent. interest, and redeemable on the 1st July, 1853, would be redeemed at the treasury on that day, or at an earlier period, as set out in the notice; and that interest would cease on it from and after the 1st July, 1853.

In regard to the foreign trade of the country, he remarks:

The imports of the fiscal year 1853, including specie, have been \$267,978,647, and the exports have been \$230,452,250. A fair estimate of profits on our exports and the freight of our vessels would cast the balance of this account in our favor, without estimating the money brought in by emigrants, of which no account is taken. It is believed that a large stock of imported merchandise remains in the hands of the merchants; and for that reason, and because of the stringency in the money market, both here and in England, it is calculated that there will be, during the remaining three quarters of the year, a diminished importation, compared with that of the first quarter.

The estimate for the fiscal year 1855 has not been made to exceed that of 1853, for the reason that it is believed that the causes of diminished importations during the latter part of the fiscal year 1854, will be extended into a part of the succeeding fiscal year, and because the agitation of a reduction of the tariff will have a tendency to prevent importations beyond the actual demand for consumption.

Most articles of manufactured merchandise, like the annual productions of agriculture, are necessarily consumed within the year, and again restored by productive industry for the succeeding year; and, with a population able to pay there is a great uniformity in the annual amount of imports and exports. There are often causes, however, which prevent a regular and progressive increase, such as short crops, low prices for exports, either at home or abroad, without the disturbing influence of war. Still, it is believed that the receipts of the fiscal year 1855 will be sufficient to meet the expenditures of the year, and a reasonable purchase of the public debt, and justify a reduction of the duties by adding to the free list and reducing the tax upon many other articles of importation.

A table accompanies the report, showing—

The foreign articles imported free of duty, and their value, for the six years from 1848 to 1853, inclusive, and also the foreign articles imported paying duty, with their value and rate of duty, for the same time.

Another table—

Exhibits a separate list of the foreign articles, which it is proposed shall be added to the free list for the purpose of reducing the revenue. The revenue collected from the article in the first table for the last year, is about \$8,000,000, in which amount, it may be computed, the revenue will be reduced, by the adoption of the proposed additional free list.

The following are some of the principal articles which it is proposed to admit duty-free:

Name of Articles.	Amount Imported.	Am't duty Yielded.	Name of Articles.	Amount Imported.	Am't duty Yielded.
Arsenic.....	\$30,523	\$4,500	Rags.....	\$992,537	50,000
Barks used for Medicine and Tanning.....	318,000	47,730	Raw Hides and Skins, of all kinds and in all conditions.....	5,041,678	297,000
Brimstone.....	186,000	29,000	Salt.....	1,058,000	210,000
Books.....	723,321	144,700	Saltpetre and Potash.....	1,309,000	97,000
Mahogany, and all Ornamental Woods and Firewood.....	463,000	92,600	Raw Silk.....	712,000	106,000
Brazil Woods, other Dyewoods in Sticks.....	355,380	17,000	Spices of all kinds.....	802,000	346,000
Cochineal.....	414,000	41,000	Steel Bars, Cast, Shear, or German.....	2,718,000	427,000
Cordilis, or Hemp of Tow or Flax.....cwt.	1,502,000	78,000	Tin, in Plates or Sheets.....	4,709,000	705,000
Cream of Tartar.....	311,000	60,000	Tin, in Pigs.....	734,000	26,000
Engravings, Etching, or Plate.....	107,000	10,000	Watches and parts of Watches.....	3,217,000	321,000
Flaxseed and Linseed.....	633,000	65,000	Zinc Spelter or Teuteneque.....	628,000	62,000
Hatters' Furs.....	1,627,000	162,000	Wines, except Champagne and adulterated Wines.....	2,114,000	845,000
Hair.....	358,000	35,000	Opium.....	346,000	172,000
India Rubber.....	681,000	68,000	Sulphate of Quinine.....	223,000	44,000
Indigo.....	1,281,000	130,000	Soda Ash.....	845,000	189,000
Ivory.....	238,000	12,000	Wool worth less than 10c. per lb.....	674,111	201,000
Lenses.....	8,897,317	1,700,000			
Oil of Palm, Coconut, and Olive.....	455,000	80,000			

These reductions of the tariff, Mr. Guthrie says—

Will leave the revenue larger than a proper and economical administration of the government will require; and for the purpose of further reduction, it is now proposed to arranged the articles paying duty in two classes; the one class to pay what may be considered the high duty of 100 per cent., and the other class to pay the moderate duty of 25 per cent., and to include all imported articles not in the free list, nor in the table K of high duties. This equalization will reduce the revenue about \$4,500,000. This still leaves the revenue, computed upon the imports of 1853, at about \$45,000,000 from customs; below which point it is not proposed to reduce the duties until the public debt is paid. The change now proposed in the rate of duty is designed to take effect from and after the 1st January, 1855.

The effect of making the duties 25 per cent. on all articles imported not included in the free and higher lists, will be to give greatly less trouble in the collection of the revenue, and to raise the duties on some articles and reduce them on others. When the duties are raised, the change may act in restraint of importation, and when reduced, in their favor; and the one result, to some extent, will counteract the other. The proposed reduction, had it been applied during the last year, would leave an abundant revenue for all the reasonable wants of the government in time of peace, and allow the proper addition to the army and navy to meet the exigencies of an augmenting population and an increasing commerce, and leave the receipts from the sale of public lands to be applied to the purchase of the public debt, to which these proceeds are pledged by law.

It is not proposed to enter into any extended argument to prove that the articles in table I. should be added to the free list, nor to prove the propriety of the proposed reduction of duties to the uniform standard of 25 per cent. When revenue is not needed, articles of general use for manufacturing and other purposes, not the growth or production of the United States, or but partially so, should not be taxed; and no higher taxes should be levied on other importations than may be necessary for the economical wants of the government, thus leaving commerce as free and unrestricted as possible. Let the tariff be reduced as Congress, in view of the present wants of the government, shall deem best, the increasing population, production, industry, and enterprise of the nation will still necessarily add to the importations, and consequently to the revenue, what shall be needed for increased expenses.

In regard to free trade Mr. Guthrie observes :

The tables accompanying this report exhibit the free lists of England, France, Belgium, Portugal, Brazil, Austria, Spain, Russia, Cuba, the Zoll Verein, Chili, Netherlands, Hans Towns, Norway, Mexico, and Sweden, and mark the progress of free trade among commercial nations. Unrestrained commerce, binding the nations of the earth in stronger bonds of peace by mutual benefits, has numerous and increasing advocates in this and other commercial countries. The principle of free trade may not yet be sufficiently verified from experience, in this and other nations, to justify its full adoption, but the progress towards free trade now proposed, will be justified, it is believed, by both public opinion and public interest. It is considered that the taking off the duty on the raw material used in our manufacturing will counteract the reduction of duties on foreign manufactures, and when compared with the operations of the present tariff, will not materially affect the interests of domestic industry or commerce.

Respecting the iron question, Mr. Guthrie remarks :

It is not proposed to change the principle of *ad valorem* duties, but it is for the consideration of Congress, whether a specific duty on iron, made from the average of the last three or four years' *ad valorem* duties, might not give greater stability to the iron business, and more satisfaction to consumers, and, at the same time, prove equally beneficial to the revenue.

Mr. Guthrie also recommends that the fishing bounty be repealed.

A table of tonnage accompanying the report shows that our tonnage is now 4,407,010 tons, and exceeds that of any preceding year by 268,000 tons.

Regarding the operations of the mint, the report shows—

The entire coinage to 31st October last to have been \$370,008,192 50 ; the gold coinage, from the 1st January to the 31st October of the year 1853, to have been \$45,998,945 60, and the silver coinage \$6,996,225, and proves an active and growing demand for gold and silver as a currency for actual use ; whilst the imports of gold and silver, including what is brought to the Atlantic from California, without estimating for that brought in by emigrants, compared with the exports of gold and silver, prove that, within four years, the large amount of \$135,972,095 73 has been added to the gold and silver coin remaining in the country. Should this increase continue for but a short term of years, this country will be able to dispense with banks of issue and their attendant evils, and have the gold and silver currency contemplated by the Constitution. The operations of the mint and its branches for the past year show a very favorable result ; and the recoinage of silver has, in many places, removed the inconvenience arising from small bank notes and want of change. It may reasonably be expected that the supply, in the course of a few years, will be ample, and extended to every section of the country.

A new species of money is suggested by the Secretary. He says—

It is thought that a coinage of an alloy resembling German silver may be beneficially substituted for the copper, and experiments to that end have been directed. Should they prove favorable, the result will be presented during the session.

The Custom House and Assay Office at New York are alluded to. Additional buildings for these objects have been rented, for fifteen years at \$53,000 per annum.

The remainder of the report is occupied by an exhibit of the internal affairs of the department, which is represented in a healthy condition in all its branches.

The coast survey has extended to all the States and Territories of our coast, and the fund for that object has been judiciously expended. The estimates for the light-house service for the ensuing year are set down at \$890,033 42, and for the ensuing year at \$906,161 43.

Attention is called to the \$5,000,000, balance of the \$10,000,000, agreed to be given to Texas in the settlement of the boundary of New Mexico, and not yet issued, but retained under the proviso to the boundary bill.

A statement is also given showing the advances from the Treasury on account of the expense of each Custom House in the United States, during the year ending June 30th, 1853, from which we learn that there was advanced to the Baltimore Custom House, \$142,706; to the one at Annapolis, Md., \$1,871 29; to Vienna, Md., \$584 99; to Havre-de-Grace, Md., \$267 52; to Georgetown, D. C., \$3,905 25; to Alexandria, Va., \$6,131; to Richmond, Va., \$6,235 47; to Norfolk and Portsmouth, Va., \$26,928 64; and to Petersburg, Va., \$5,616 31. Total to all the Custom Houses in the United States, \$1,245,617.

LAND OFFICE REPORT.

In this document we find the following exposition of the affairs of the office regarding the public domain:—

In the fiscal year ending the 30th June last, were sold for cash, 1,083,495.21 acres.
 Located with military warrants..... 6,142,360.00
 " with other certificates..... 9,426.66

Making a total thus disposed of..... 7,235,281.87
 In addition to these, there were reported under Swamp Land grant..... 16,684,253.26 acres.
 And for internal improvements, railroads, &c..... 1,427,457.68 "

Making an aggregate of..... 25,346,472.81 "
For the Quarter ending September 31, 1853,
 There were sold for cash..... 1,295,185.36 acres.
 Located with bounty land warrants..... 1,148,280.00 "

Reported under swamp-land grant..... 2,443,465.36 "
 Railroad grants..... 2,527,694.20 "
 Railroad grants..... 70,116.00 "

Making an aggregate of..... 5,041,276.56 "
 This shows an increase for the last fiscal year, compared with the preceding, in sales and locations, of..... 2,365,215.00 "
 And including swamp land selections of..... 12,231,818.00 "
 The increase for the third quarter of the current calendar, and the corresponding quarter of the previous year, of..... 567,562.00 "
 And including swamp land selections, is..... 910,123.00 "

These statements have reference only to the lands east of the Rocky Mountains; for although land districts have been established in California and Oregon, and extensive surveys have been made there, which have added materially to the correspondence of the office, no lands have yet been reported as disposed of in those districts.

The number of land warrants under the laws of 1837, 1850, and 1852, granting bounty lands, is 266,042, embracing 25,384,640 acres. The number of warrants located has been 199,095, embracing 20,666,520 acres of land. The number of outstanding warrants is 66,947, embracing 4,778,120 acres.

The report of the Surveyor-General of Oregon and Washington Territories has not been received. About 2,000,000 of acres in those territories have been surveyed.

Mr. Guthrie recommends—

That all persons who rendered military service in any war in which the United States have been engaged since 1790, without reference to length of service, be allowed an amount of land which, with that previously granted, would be equal to the quantity of a quarter section, or one hundred and sixty acres.

He also recommends that a grant of land be made to the District of Columbia for educational purposes; and gives some interesting statistics showing the influence which railroads exercise upon the value of lands.

The great increase in sales and locations of land for the last fiscal year, and in the third quarter of the current calendar year, mentioned in a former part of this report, has occurred in those States where railroads have been projected and grants made for them, or where such works are in contemplation, or by the proposed construction of the Sault Ste. Marie canal. As evidence of this fact, I would state that the lands withdrawn from sale in Illinois, to enable that State to select those granted to her by the act of 20th September, 1850, were again brought into market in July, August, and September, 1852, deducting, of course, the 2,595,053.14 acres selected by her under that grant.

During the fiscal year ending the 30th June last, in that State	
there were sold for cash.....	298,861 acres.
Located with land warrants.....	2,509,120 "

Total.....	2,807,981 acres,
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Being about one and a quarter million more than all the lands sold (excluding the locations of warrants) during the preceding fiscal year, in all the land States and Territories. This increase would no doubt have been greater if the main body of these lands had been in market in the beginning of the last fiscal year, which was not the fact. The following statement of the amount of sales for cash, along the route of this road in the several districts in Illinois, from the time these lands were thus brought into market in 1852, to the 30th of September, 1853, more strongly evinces the effect that road has had upon the sale of these lands:

The second column contains the number of acres sold at the double minimum; the third, the number of acres sold above the ordinary minimum, and above and below the double minimum; and the fourth, the average number of years that these lands were in market, at the minimum of \$1 25 per acre, from the time originally offered to 1850, when they were withdrawn from the market:

District.	Acres.	Acres.	Years.
Chicago.....	28,400.....	2,000.....	13
Dixon.....	21,480.....	160.....	9
Danville.....	123,940.....	40,360.....	19
Vandalia.....	69,520.....	320.....	28
Palatine.....	7,920.....	720.....	28
Shawneetown.....	3,680.....	300.....	34
Kaskaskia.....	27,840.....	34
Springfield.....	4,560.....	20
Total.....	284,080.....	48,320.....	
Aggregate.....	48,320.....	332,400.....	

In Missouri, the lands along the supposed routes of the several railroads for which grants were made by the act of the 10th June, 1852, were withdrawn from market on the following day. As those roads had not then been located, these reservations were made more extensive than the lateral lines mentioned in the act, to enable the State to select the best route for each. The excess outside the fifteen-mile limits, ascertained after the survey of the roads, was restored to market on the 5th July, 1853, and hence could only affect the sales for the third quarter of that year. The following statement shows the amount of land sold during that quarter, and in the corresponding quarter of the three preceding years, in each district:

District.	1850. 3d quarter.	1851. 3d quarter.	1852. 3d quarter.	1853. 3d quarter.
St. Louis	4,858.68.....	18,022.54.....	1,903.73.....	*41,308.67
Palmyra	5,353.23.....	17,672.89.....	709.92.....	34,469.65
Fayette	3,786.09.....	9,178.04.....	69.52.....	28,765.76†
Clinton	10,730.30.....	17,311.04.....	none.....	104,627.93
Jackson	5,546.01.....	9,468.58.....	5,879.44.....	16,858.62
Springfield	4,848.71.....	15,218.03.....	13.36.....	53,891.43
Plattsburg	9,750.04.....	17,593.90.....	994.07.....	15,035.23
Millan	3,375.47.....	6,883.14.....	2,050.30.....	†23,882.16

Here, although the lands sold were fifteen miles or more from the route of the road, the increase has been very great; and I have no doubt, when the alternate sections within six miles, and those between the six and fifteen-mile limits, are brought into market, that the increase will be equal to that of Illinois.

In Mississippi, the sales have been very limited for several years. On the 20th September, 1850, the lands in Augusta and Columbus districts, along the proposed route of the Central Railroad from Chicago, in Illinois, to Mobile, in Alabama, were withdrawn from market, and were not again thrown open to entry until the 26th September, 1853, for the Augusta district, and 19th September, 1853, for the Columbus district. In the former district there were but five days left in that month for sales to be made, and in the latter twelve days. The September return being the last received from those districts, I have caused a comparison to be made between sales for that month in 1853, and for the same month in the four preceding years, and the result is as follows, to wit:

Augusta, September, 1849.....	424.95 acres.
Augusta, September, 1850.....	311.47 "
Augusta, September, 1851.....	40.65 "
Augusta, September, 1852.....	2.48 "
Augusta, September, 1853.....	19,530.47 "

These 19,530 acres, at \$1 25 per acre, would amount to \$24,413 09; but the actual amount received was \$34,056 78, making an increase over the ordinary minimum of \$9,643 69.

In the Columbus district this comparison is as follows, to wit:

	Cash sales.	Warrants located.	Total acres.
September, 1849.....	\$1,792 58.....	636.63.....	2,359.23
September, 1850.....	1,907 69.....	339.31.....	2,267.00
September, 1851.....	611 90.....	632 60.....	1,244.50
September, 1852.....	894 74.....	2,316 51.....	3,151.25
September, 1853.....	16,664 04.....	5,840.69.....	22,504.73

In the Sault Ste. Marie district, in Michigan, the entries for the second and third quarters of 1852 amount to 40,689.65 acres; and for the second and third quarters of 1853, to 89,073.81 acres.

This great and extraordinary increase in the amount of lands disposed of in these several sections of the country, remote from each other, can only be accounted for by the improvements referred to: in fact, so great is the increase in the value of lands, that land warrants and land scrip are nearly up to the par or face value. If, then, no other reason existed for such grants, this one, on the score of sound economy, would be sufficient. Many of these lands, however, have been in market long enough for the interest to amount to much more than the principal; and during all this period the States were deprived of the right and benefit of taxation. The lands donated for the construction of these improvements, and those thus entered, must, of necessity, be cultivated, to enable the holders to pay the taxes, and from this legitimate source of revenue great pecuniary benefit will be derived by the States. This cultivation, as a matter of course, will increase the amount of grain and stock in the country; and, with these increased facilities for sending those products to market, will reduce the price of living, and thus benefit the whole community. They will also reduce the price of transportation for the manufactures and imports of the seaboard, and so reduce the price of those articles to the settler, and proportionally increase the quantity used, and of course the profit to the manufacturer and importer. The mail facilities furnished by these lines of intercommunication will be of great advantage to the government and

* No sales in August, 1853, there being no register.

† No sales in July, 1853.

the entire community; and in case of war, if hostilities were brought to our own borders, the advantages furnished by them for transporting men and military stores are almost inappreciable. Another and very great benefit derived from these improvements is, the amount of capital and labor carried into the hearts of the several States by their construction. Hundreds of thousands of laborers can find constant employment on them; and each, by a very small amount of labor, can secure the blessings of a "homestead," without feeling degraded by having it conferred on him as a gratuity, even if it were constitutional thus to benefit a few at the expense of the many, or compatible with the pledges heretofore given in relation to the public lands.

REPORT OF THE POSTMASTER-GENERAL.

From this valuable and lengthy document, it appears that—

On the 30th September last, there were in operation within the United States 202 railroad routes; their aggregate length was 13,410½ miles; and the cost of mail transportation thereon \$1,645,432 23, being at the rate of \$120 26 7-10 per mile. Include the pay of mail messengers, route and local agents, the whole expense of this service is increased to \$1,863,264 78, or \$139 38 1-10 per mile.

On estimating other kinds of service in the same manner upon the aggregate length of routes, it is discovered that the average cost of steamboat service is \$34 45 per mile; coach service, \$23 88 per mile; and of modes not specified, \$7 86 per mile.

Our local mail service on the Pacific is strongly marked by two peculiarities, especially in California—very high prices and great difficulty in giving that people the mail facilities which they require. At the same time, it appears from the reports that the performance of the service under the contracts is characterized by fidelity and energy—qualities which are put in great requisition by the flooded state of the roads at particular seasons of the year.

The present cost of transportation in steamboats in California is about thirteen cents eight mills per mile; in coaches, about twenty cents per mile; and in modes not specified, about thirty-four cents six mills per mile; while the cost of similar service in the United States, excluding Oregon, New Mexico, and Utah, is, in steamboats about nine cents per mile, in coaches about five cents and five mills per mile, and in modes not specified, about four cents and seven mills per mile.

The most striking discrepancy appears on comparing these prices, which the government pays in California, with those which it receives for the same work—I mean the rates of postage. The one is graduated to the highest scale of prices, and the other to the lowest. For a single letter of half an ounce the department receives six cents when prepaid, and ten cents when unpaid, and for each pound of printed matter, which comprises a very large proportion of the contents of the mails, about five cents a pound; the cost to the department for transportation across the Isthmus alone being twenty-two cents a pound. The necessary consequence is that the cost of mail service in California greatly exceeds the revenue it yields.

The financial condition of the post-office department is not as flattering as it ought to be. Congress must look into its affairs and devise some means of improvement. The following exposé will show our readers the true state of things:—

The government employs constantly eighteen special agents from whose observation the department is enabled to determine what service is required in the different States, and how the service is performed. It is an important part, also, of their duties, to see that the postmasters properly perform their duties, and report a want of ability, attention, or fidelity on their part, or on that of contractors, promptly to the department. Some suggestions are made for the classification of these agents, that their services may be rendered more valuable to the department.

The expenditure of the department during the last fiscal year, as stated by the auditor, amounts to \$7,982,756 59, viz.:

Compensation to postmasters,.....	\$1,406,477 05
Additional compensation by act 3d March, 1851,.....	414,525 10
Ship, steamboat, and way-letters.....	28,105 83
Transportation,.....	4,906,308 05
Wrapping paper,.....	41,458 94
Office furniture,.....	3,241 50
Advertising,.....	79,346 00
Mail bags,.....	49,308 53
Blanks,.....	71,056 22
Mail locks, keys and stamps,.....	14,733 80
New mail locks and keys,.....	18,935 54
Mail depredations, and special agents,.....	55,275 43
Clerks for offices (the offices of post-masters),.....	509,820 24
Official letters received by post-masters,.....	472 41
Postage stamps,.....	3,664 50
Stamped envelopes,.....	10,391 03
Post-office laws, list, &c.,.....	1,670 00
Repayment for dead letters,.....	34 26
Payment to letter carriers,.....	113,017 73
Postage stamps returned, old issue,.....	68 05
Stamps on hand overcharged,.....	85 90
Miscellaneous payments,.....	116,408 30
Miscellaneous account of British postages,.....	132,592 08
Miscellaneous account of Bremen postages,.....	3,565 09

\$7,982,756 59

The gross revenue of the year, from all sources, amounted to \$5,940,724 70, viz.:

Letter postage, including foreign postage and stamps sold,....	\$4,473,227 54
Newspapers and pamphlets,.....	611,333 42
Fines,.....	82 50
Emoluments accounts of postmasters,.....	38,386 01
Dead letters,.....	45 00
Damages from failing contractors,	1,384 00
Letter carriers,.....	113,017 73
Miscellaneous receipts,	3,248 50
Annual appropriations from the treasury, in compensation of mail services performed for the government,.....	700,000 00

\$5,940,724 70

It appears from the foregoing statements that the gross revenue of the year ending June 30, 1853, fell short of the expenditures during the year by the sum of \$2,042,031 89.

The foregoing deficiency should be diminished by the sum of \$53,504 48 due the United States to the 30th June, 1853, under the postal convention with Prussia, and increased by the quarterly balances due to Great Britain up to the same period, amounting to \$128,550 79. This would leave the deficiency in the revenue of the year to stand at \$2,117,078 20.

To supply the deficiency last mentioned, the department had at its disposal the following means, viz.:

The available balance to the credit of the department on the books of the auditor on the 1st of July, 1852,.....	\$566,632 57
The appropriations to supply any deficiency made by the act of March 31, 1851,.....	500,000 00
The appropriations made by the act of March 3d, 1853, to supply deficiencies of the year,	500,000 00

\$1,571,632 57

Leaving the further sum of \$545,445 63 to be provided by Congress for the service of the year ending July 30, 1853.

The number of postage stamps issued to postmasters for sale during the fiscal years ending June 30, 1852, and June 30, 1853, is shown by the following statement:

Year ending June 30.	Denomination 1 cent.	Denomination 3 cents.	Denomination 12 cents.	Amount Dollars.
1852.....	5,489,249	48,410,035	237,042	1,535,630 51
1853.....	4,736,311	51,461,040	146,555	1,608,792 91
	12,255,553	99,871,075	383,697	3,144,431 42

The amount of postage stamps sold during the year ending June 30, 1851, was \$1,316,653 37, and the sales during the year ending June 30th, 1853, amounted to \$1,629,262 12, leaving in the hands of postmasters unsold \$108,605 71.

During the quarter ending 30th September, 1853, there were issued to postmasters for sale—

464,350 note-size 3-cent stamped envelopes.

8,118,250 letter-size, 3-cent “ “

15,000 “ 6-cent “ “

131,080 official-size, 6-cent “ “

Amounting in all to \$295, 292 69.

It is estimated that the expenditures of the current fiscal year will amount to \$8,716,601.

REPORT OF THE SECRETARY OF THE NAVY.

The United States Navy consists of the following squadrons:

The Home Squadron, Commodore Newton, consists of the flag ship, the frigate Columbia, Commander Pendergrast; sloops of war Albany, Commander Gerry, and Cyane, Commander Rollins; steamers Fulton, Lieut. Watson, and Vixen, lately commanded by Lieut. Swarthout. This latter vessel was dispatched in the month of May to Tampico, on special duty, and on her return to Pensacola, was put out of commission, on account of the appearance of yellow fever on board, which, in its fatal progress, deprived the service of many excellent officers and faithful men.

The Brazil Squadron, Commodore Salter, consists of the flag ship Savannah Commander Mercer, which sailed from Norfolk for her destination, on the 14th of September, and the sloop-of-war Jamestown, Capt. Downing.

The Mediterranean Squadron, Commodore Stringham, consists of the flag ship, the frigate Cumberland, Commander Harwood, sloops-of-war St. Louis, Commander Ingraham, and Levant, Commander Turner, to which vessel he was transferred from the Cumberland upon the return of Commander Goldsborough to the United States, to take command of the Naval Academy.

The East India squadron, Commodore Perry, consists of the steamer Mississippi, Commander H. A. Adams, his flag ship; the steamers Powhatan, Captain McCluney, and Susquehanna, Commander Buchanan; the sloops-of-war Macedonian, Commander Kelley, Saratoga, Commander Walker, and Vandalia, Commander Pope; the storeship Supply, Lieut. Arthur Sinclair, Southampton, Lieut. Boyle, and Lexington, Lieut. Glasson. Commodore Aulick, whom Commodore Perry succeeded in the command of this squadron, returned to the United States early in the year. The extraordinary revolutionary movements agitating the millions of China, and threatening the overthrow of the present dynasty, and the hope indulged of the dawning of a new era in the history of the trade and commerce with that singular people, impart unusual importance and interest to the movements of this squadron.

The Pacific squadron, Commodore Dulany, consists of his flag ship, the frigate St. Lawrence, Commander William W. Hunter, and the sloop-of-war Portsmouth, Commander Dornin. The sloop-of-war St. Mary's, Commander Bailly, left Philadelphia on the 15th of October, to join this squadron. In addition to these vessels, the receiving ship Warren, Lieut. Stanly, at San Francisco, and the stationary

storeship *Fredonia*, Lieut. J. D. Johnston, at Valparaiso, are under the command of Commodore Dulany.

Besides the employment of the vessels of the Navy in this squadron, the expedition for the survey and reconnaissance, for naval and commercial purposes, of parts of Behring's Straits, of the North Pacific Ocean; and the China Seas, authorized by Act of Congress, of August 3d, 1852, which was placed by my predecessor under the command of Commander Ringgold, should be mentioned. It consists of the sloop-of-war *Vincennes*, Lieut. Roland; the brig *Porpoise*, Lieut. B. B. Davis; the steamer *John Hancock*, Lieut. John Rogers; the storeship *John P. Kennedy*, Lieutenant Collins; and the tender *Fenimore Cooper*, Master H. K. Stevens. This expedition left the United States in June, and when last heard from, had reached Simon's Bay, Cape of Good Hope, and was doing well.

In speaking of the squadron to the Mediterranean, the Secretary observes:

In calling to your attention the movements of this squadron, I cannot omit an especial reference to the conduct of Commander Ingraham, while in command of the *St. Louis*, at Smyrna. An ocean of several thousand miles separated him from his country, and his small ship was alone in bearing his country's flag. Violence was committed on the personal liberty of a man entitled to the protection of that flag. The perpetrators of the offense outnumbered him in vessels, guns and men. It was a moment of peril, involving honor and life. With prudence and discretion, yet with promptness and spirit, and marked determination, Commander Ingraham gave the protection, and the man is free. Such conduct under such circumstances, surely entitles an officer to the most significant evidence of the Government's approval.

The Secretary speaks in terms of high commendation of the National Observatory; and of the Naval Academy he says:

This interesting institution is rapidly supplying the Navy with numbers of educated and accomplished young men, whose early training, discipline, and instruction under the guidance of learned professors and experienced officers, particularly fit them to adorn the service. The beneficial results already witnessed, demonstrate satisfactorily that it is now sustaining the same relations to the Navy that the West Point Academy bears to the army. It is well worthy of the fostering patronage of the government.

There are now at the Institution 116 students. The first class, under the regulation of 1850, will graduate in June next.

The increase of the Navy is again recommended.

The American Navy consists of about seventy vessels, embracing all, from the ships of the line to the smallest brig, schooner, and store ship. Of these, many ships of the line, frigates, steamers and sloops of war, are not only unfit for service, but I am advised by the Bureau of Construction, Equipment and Repairs, that they are not worth repairing. There are not now in the Navy forty vessels which could be brought into service in ninety days, if needed. There is no steamer in the Pacific or African squadrons, but one, of two guns, in the Brazil squadron; and we have no steamer of more than ten guns.

The Secretary is decidedly opposed to the restoration of flogging in the navy.

The necessity of large additions to our steam navy is urged at length, and the establishments of machine shops at the naval stations in the Atlantic and in California is recommended.

A change in the system of promotions is also recommended.

The estimates for the support of the Navy and the Marine Corps for the year ending June 30, 1853, and for all objects coming under the control of this depart-

ment, are in the aggregate \$11,730,515 19. From which deduct special objects, including the transportations of the mails in steamships, \$3,379,344, leaves for the support of the Navy and the Marine Corps, \$8,351,171 19. The total amount drawn from the Treasury, during the fiscal year, was \$12,091,120 87. Deduct re-payments, \$1,111,454 79, leaves \$10,979,666 08 as the total expenditure for all objects under the control of the Navy Department. But of this amount there was expended for special objects, the sum of \$4,039,942 37—leaving, as the legitimate expenditures for the support of the Navy and Marine Corps for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1853, \$6,939,723 71.

REPORT OF THE SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR.

This truly able document, embracing an exposition of so large a number of the public offices, is extremely well elaborated, and shows that all the affairs of the department are in a most healthy condition. The details of the report, we give under the head of the reports of the different offices belonging to the department. Of the public domain, Secretary McClelland says:

The entire area of the public domain is estimated at about 1,584,000,000 acres. That within the States (exclusive of California) is 471,892,439 acres.

Its purchase was effected at the rate of 14 41 cents per acre, amounting to \$67,999,700

To this should be added the Indian reservations, which enter into the original cost, amounting to 3,400,725 acres, which, valued at \$1 25 per acre, would make 4,250,906

Up to the 30th June, 1853, 334,256,810 acres had been sold, at an expense of 2 07 cents per acre, making 6,919,116

And 184,667,135 acres sold at an additional expense for selling, at 5 32 cents per acre, making 9,824,291

The entire cost (including survey and selling) being 88,994,013

The whole amount accruing from sales up to 30th June, 1853, was 142,283,478

Being \$53,289,465 more than the cost of the whole, thus far, inclusive of survey and sale.

Of the surveyed lands there have been granted—

For educational purposes, 11,199,973 acres.

For military bounties, 24,841,980 "

And for internal improvements, 16,607,013 "

Making 52,648,966 "

There yet remain of the surveyed lands 96,940,709 acres, worth (after deducting the cost of selling yet to be borne), \$116,018,641

And 137,635,629 acres, worth (after deducting the expense of surveying and selling), 161,873,263

Making 277,891,904

To which add the net profits received for lands actually sold, 53,289,465

And we find that, while the purchase, survey, and sale of the public lands will, in the end, have cost \$88,991,013, the net amount which will have been realized therefor is the enormous sum of \$331,181,369

It is thus shown that the general government, instead of being a loser, as many have supposed, by its connection with the public lands, has found them not only a source of revenue, but a ready means of promoting the cause of general education, and of bestowing well-earned rewards for military service.

In regard to the granting of public lands for the benefit of internal improvements, Secretary McClelland observes :

There can be as little doubt of the constitutionality of such grants as of their propriety. The right to donate a part for the enhancement of the value of the residue, can no longer be justly questioned. The principle has been adopted and acted upon for nearly thirty years ; and since experience has shown it to be productive of so much good, no sound reason is perceived why it should now be abandoned. It has been of incalculable importance to the great West, and, either directly or indirectly, to all the States.

As many projects have been, and many others probably will be, presented to Congress by interested parties, it may be difficult, practically, to discriminate between those that are worthy and those that are not. Congress will have all the facts in each case before it, and, in its wisdom, will decide as in similar cases of legislation. By making every grant specific, and throwing proper guards, restrictions, and limitations around it, the object to be attained may be secured, and plans and combinations for mere speculation frustrated and defeated.

Something is manifestly due to the hardy pioneer, without whose labor, industry, and enterprise the West would now be of little moment. No one who has not been an eye-witness can appreciate the hardships and privations endured by him, and government should certainly not hesitate to aid him, especially when it can be done without detriment to the other States, or to any other interests.

The Secretary makes a number of important suggestions for the improvement of the public service, which we presume will be adopted. Regarding the mineral lands of California, the Patent Office, the General Land Office, the Pension and Census Office, the Secretary speaks favorably, and recommends some important changes.

Secretary McClelland recommends the erection of buildings for the sole accommodation of the Department of the Interior. He says :

Within a few years the Patent Office will need the main building and the two wings for its exclusive use. In the meantime a structure should be erected for this department ; and as it consumes much time to complete such a building, sound policy should induce its immediate commencement. One sufficiently large and commodious, and entirely separated from the other departments, can be constructed in a plain, substantial manner for \$250,000 ; and in the most approved style, with all the modern improvements, for less than half a million. Surely, at this time, there can be no more proper or profitable application of the public money. The considerations urging it are strong and apparent, and, it seems to me, cannot fail to convince every one who reflects upon the subject of its absolute necessity.

REPORT OF THE SECRETARY OF WAR.

This is an elaborate and well-written State paper.

It appears that the authorized strength of the army (as now posted), is 13,821, officers and men ; but it will be seen by the accompanying table, prepared in the Adjutant-General's office, from the latest returns, that the actual strength is only 10,417. Of this number, 8,378 are employed in the frontier departments, or are now on the route to them.

The Secretary recommends :

1. An increase of — per cent. of the present pay of the soldier.
2. An additional increase for each successive period of five years, so long as he shall remain in the army.
3. Provision for the promotion to the lowest grade of commissioned officers, of

such of the non-commissioned officers of the army as may be found qualified for, and by their conduct, character, and services, entitled to, such advancement.

The depreciation in the value of money, as measured by the wages of labor and the cost of all the necessities of life, has been so great, that the necessity and propriety of the first of these measures must at once be apparent. The pay of the soldier is, relatively, less now than it was prior to the increase granted by the law of July 7, 1838.

The necessity and propriety of the second measure proposed, are believed to be equally great; but in order to elucidate it, it will be necessary to exhibit some of the data upon which this opinion is based. With regard to the proposed increase of pay for length of service, it is suggested:

1. That every soldier who, having been honorably discharged from the service of the United States, shall, within one month thereafter, re-enlist, shall be entitled to \$2 per month, in addition to the ordinary pay of his grade, for the first period of five years after the expiration of his first enlistment, and a further sum of \$1 per month for each successive period of five years, so long as he shall remain continuously in the army.

2. That soldiers now in the army, who have served more than one enlistment, shall be entitled to the benefits of this provision, according to the length of their continuous service; and that service during the war with Mexico, although for a less period than five years, shall be counted as a five years' service.

3. That soldiers who served in the war with Mexico, and received a certificate of merit for distinguished services, as well those now in the army as those that may hereafter enlist, shall receive the \$2 per month to which that certificate would have entitled them if they had remained continuously in the service.

In regard to the Military Academy, the Secretary says:

The recommendation of the board to increase the academic term to five years, is one which has been frequently presented by preceding boards of visitors, and which is believed to be sustained by important considerations. The low standard of acquirement now fixed to entitle a cadet to admission, must often lead to the introduction of those whose previous education has been very defective; and the study of the scientific and military branches included in the course, leaves little time for the acquisition of that knowledge of international law, of language, and of literature, demanded by the interests of the service.

The officer of the army may often be required promptly to decide upon questions of national law, where errors would be seriously injurious to his country; and his reports and memoirs are the channels through which deeds most illustrating his country's history are transmitted to other people and to other times. To raise the standard of acquirement to be possessed previous to admission to the academy, would, in some degree, deprive the institution of its present popular character, by excluding those who, from the want of early advantages, could not then pass the preliminary examination. The grade of cadet, being the lowest in commission known to our army, should be, as it now is, within the reach of youths in every condition of life; and this, together with the fact that by the mode of appointment all sections and all parties are fairly represented, gives to the institution that character which should belong to it as a part of the military establishment of the United States. If, then, a more finished education than that which is to be obtained by the course now prescribed be desirable for the officers of the army, the recommendation of the board for an increase of the academic term, presents, it is believed, the least objectionable mode of effecting that object. The estimates submitted for the current year are recommended to favorable consideration.

There are several other reports, which want of space precludes from being noticed in this number. They will be referred to at another time.

ART. VIII.—THE MANUFACTURES OF THE UNITED STATES.

No. 1.

LOWELL.

LOWELL—NUMBER OF ITS MILLS—ITS MANUFACTURING COMPANIES—AMOUNT OF CAPITAL EMPLOYED—NUMBER OF OPERATIVES—AMOUNT OF COTTON CONSUMED—QUANTITIES AND KIND OF PRODUCTS, ETC., ETC.

LOWELL is one of the manufacturing wonders of the age. It illustrates, in a remarkable manner, the well-known truth, that the prosperity of a country depends more upon the intelligence, enterprise, and industrious character of its inhabitants, than upon its soil and climate. Cold and barren New-England is, nevertheless, through the intelligence, enterprise, and the indomitable energy and untiring industry of its people, one of the wealthiest countries on the globe. The character of a people is every thing for a country's wealth. Mexico, and most of South America, are rich in soil, climate, and in every thing that a bountiful nature could bestow; but still they are the poorest countries in the civilized world, because they lack the one thing needful to make *any* country rich—an intelligent, honest, and industrious people. Spain, too, is a miserable, bankrupt, poverty-stricken nation; and why? Because her people are ignorant, unenterprising, and lazy. In the hands of the Anglo-Saxon blood, Spain would become one of the richest countries on the globe. Her mountains and valleys are full of wealth; her harbors are fine; her climate delightful; many of her rivers might be made navigable; all of them, indeed, afford inexhaustible supplies of water-power for manufactures; the soil of her valleys is rich, and capable of supplying the whole of Spain with bread, and of exporting besides. But for all these, Spain is miserably poor—a land of beggars and robbers—and compelled, through a natural laziness, encouraged by one of the worst governments in the world, to import bread to eat! How must Spain blush—perhaps she cannot blush—when she looks at our barren New-England, and sees how beautiful and happy, and how immensely wealthy the intelligence and industry of its people have made it!

But to return to Lowell. We propose to lay before our readers some account of its manufacturing industry, which has given it a world-wide renown. In 1828, only 25 years ago, Lowell was a little town of only 3,532 inhabitants. Its immense manufacturing facilities had before that time at-

tracted the attention of enterprising capitalists; and the first—the Merrimack Manufacturing Company—went into operation there in 1823. In 1825, the Hamilton Manufacturing Company commenced operations; and, in 1828, the Appleton Company.

Lowell, in the rapidity of its growth, stands almost unrivaled. In 1820 it had less than 200 inhabitants. It was incorporated by the legislature of Massachusetts in 1826, with a territory of four square miles. The village of Belvidere being added to it in 1834, it has now about five square miles. In 1820, the valuation of its property did not exceed \$100,000. In 1830, the population was 6,477; in 1840, 20,796, with property worth \$12,400,000. In 1844, the population was 25,000.

Having recently received some very interesting and authentic statistics regarding the manufactories and manufactures of Lowell, up to January, 1853, we shall embody them in this article.

The *Merrimack Manufacturing Company*, the first chartered in Lowell, has now a capital stock of \$2,500,000. It has in operation six mills; and print works; 71,072 spindles; 2,114 looms; and employs 1,650 females, and 450 males. It manufactures 377,000 yards of various kinds of fabrics per week. It consumes 84,000 lbs., or 210 bales of 400 lbs. each, of cotton per week! The number of yards dyed and printed per week is 335,000. The goods chiefly manufactured by this company are prints and sheetings, No. 21 to 40.

The number of tons of anthracite coal consumed by this establishment annually is 8,500 tons; charcoal, 35,550 bushels; wood, 400 cords; and of oil, 7,260 gallons. There are also consumed by it, for manufacturing purposes, 205,000 lbs. of starch per annum, and 850 barrels of flour.* The water-power is applied by means of breast-wheels, 30 feet in diameter, and turbines 5 feet. The establishment is warmed by steam. The present agent of this gigantic company is ISAAC HINCKLEY, Esq.

The next oldest company is the *Hamilton Manufacturing Company*, with a capital of \$1,200,000. It has four mills and their print-works; 47,198 spindles; and 1,340 looms. It employs 750 females, and 406 males. It manufactures 250,000 yards per week, and consumes per week 80,000 lbs., or 200 bales of cotton. It manufactures 110,000 yards of printed goods per week, and 36,000 of dyed. It manufactures prin-

* In addition to all these, the establishment consumes annually 1,000,000 lbs. of madder; 380,000 lbs. of copperas; 60,000 lbs. of alum; 50,000 lbs. of sumac; 40,000 lbs. of soap; and 45,000 lbs. of indigo.

cipally prints, flannels, ticks, and sheetings. The agent of this company is JOHN AVERY, Esq.

The *Appleton Company* is the next oldest in Lowell, being chartered in 1827. Its capital is \$600,000. It has three mills, running 17,920 spindles, and 700 looms. It employs 400 females and 120 males; and manufactures chiefly sheetings and shirtings, No. 14. GEO. MOTLEY, Esq., is the agent.

Next is the *Lowell Manufacturing Company*, chartered in 1828, with a capital of \$2,000,000. It has three mills—a spinning, a carpet, and a cotton mill. It runs 5,650 woolen spindles; 8,050 cotton; 200 power carpet looms; 205 cotton looms, and 49 fancy-check looms. It employs 800 females and 500 males. It manufactures per week 25,000 yards of carpeting, 14,000 of plain stuffs, 90,000 yards of Osnaburgs, and 50 rugs. It consumes 50,000 lbs. per week of cotton, or 125 bales; and 66,000 lbs. of wool. It manufactures carpets, rugs, cotton cloth, and pantaloons stuffs. The agent of the company is SAMUEL FAY, Esq.

The *Middlesex Company*, chartered in 1830, has a capital of 1,000,000, and keeps in operation 4 mills and 3 dye-houses. It manufactures broadcloths, and plain and fancy cassimeres. It runs 16,340 spindles, and employs 730 females and 575 males. It manufactures, weekly, 24,000 yards of cassimeres, and 3,000 yards of broadcloth. It runs 75 broadcloth looms, and 328 for cassimeres. The amount of wool consumed is 33,000 lbs. per week. The Middlesex Company use, annually 6,000,000 of teasels, 2,000,000 lbs. of fine wool, 50,000 lbs. of glue, \$13,000 worth of soap, and \$30,000 worth of dye-stuffs.

The *Suffolk Manufacturing Company* went into operation in 1832, with a capital of \$600,000. It has three mills, and runs 17,528 spindles and 590 looms, which furnish employment to 400 females and 100 males. This establishment produces, weekly, 120,000 yards of drillings, to the manufacture of which it is exclusively confined. It consumes 50,000 lbs. of cotton, or 125 bales per week.

The *Tremont Mills* also went into operation in 1832, with a capital of \$600,000. Their mills, 2 in number, manufacture sheetings and shirtings to the amount of 155,000 yards per week. They run 16,608 spindles and 620 looms, employing 400 females and 100 males, and consuming 115 bales of cotton per week.

In 1830 the Lawrence Manufacturing Company of Lowell was incorporated; but they did commence operations until 1833-4. Its capital is \$1,500,000. It has 5 mills, running 44,800 spindles, 1,382 looms, and employing 1,200 females and 200 males. This immense establishment manufactures,

of printing cloths, sheetings, and shirtings, 260,000 yards per week, and consumes, weekly, 237 bales of cotton, of 400 lbs. each.

Next in the order of time, is the establishment called the *Lowell Bleachery*, established in 1832, with a capital of \$300,000. It employs 20 females and 250 males, and bleaches 5,000,000 lbs. of cotton goods per annum. It also dyes 15,000,000 of yards.

The *Boott Cotton Mills*, established in 1835, have a capital of \$1,200,000, and 5 mills, running 51,866 spindles and 1,432 looms, employing 870 females and 262 males. It manufactures 300,000 yards of drillings, sheetings, shirtings, jeans, and printing cloths per week.

The *Massachusetts Cotton Mills*, established in 1840, have a capital of \$1,800,000. It employs 6 mills, 45,720 spindles, and 1,571 looms. The number of females employed is 1,250, of males 300. It manufactures sheetings, shirtings, and drillings, to the amount of 475,000 yards per week. It consumes 150,000 lbs. or 375 bales of cotton per week, or 19,500 bales annually.

Such is a very brief outline of the immense manufacturing operations of Lowell, deservedly called the "*Manchester of America*."

To recapitulate: The total amount of capital employed at Lowell, at the present time, is *thirteen millions of dollars*; the number of mills is 51; the number of spindles running is 342,722; the number of looms, 10,606; of females employed, 8,470; of males, 4,143. The goods manufactured, per week, are 2,087,000 yards of cotton, 27,000 yards of woolen, 25,000 yards of carpeting, and 50 rugs. The amount of cotton consumed per week, by all the mills, is 705,000 lbs., or 1,762 bales, making the annual consumption of cotton, by the Lowell mills, amount to 94,624 bales. The quantity of wool consumed is 99,000 lbs. per week, or 2,574 tons annually. The amount of goods produced by the mills annually, is as follows:

Cottons,	118,524,000 yards.
Woolens,	1,404,000 "
Carpets,	1,300,000 "
Rugs,	2,600 "

But these are not all the manufactures of Lowell. Besides these, other manufactures are produced there, of various kinds, to the value of \$1,500,000, employing a capital of \$400,000, and about 1,500 men. The *Lowell Machine Shop*, established by the companies, in 1840, for the manufacture of cotton and woolen machinery, locomotives, steam-engines, machinists'

tools, mill work, &c., employs a capital of \$600,000, and 700 men. It consumes 705,000 tons of wrought and cast iron per annum. This establishment can furnish the machinery, complete, for a mill of 6,000 spindles, in three months; and a mill can be built in the same time.

We must not omit to notice in this sketch of the manufactures of Lowell, exhibiting so much laudable and successful enterprise, the extensive Powder Mills of Oliver M. Whipple, Esq., and the Paper and Batting Mills of Perez O. Richmond, Esq., both on the Concord River, within the precincts of the city. Messrs. Fiske & Norcross' extensive Lumber Yard and Saw Mills, on the Merrimack, are also worthy of notice.

The wages of the Lowell operatives are as follows:

Average wages of females clear of board, per week, \$2 00

Average wages of males clear of board, per day, 0 80

There are two institutions for savings—The Lowell and the City. The Lowell had on deposit, the first Saturday in November, 1850, from 4,609 depositors, \$736,628 12. The City, January 8th, 1853, had on deposit from 2,374 depositors, 492,006 01. The operatives in the mills are the principal depositors in the above banks.

The several manufacturing companies have established a hospital for the convenience and comfort of persons employed by them respectively, when sick, which is under the superintendence of one of the best surgeons and physicians.

Before closing this notice of Lowell, it may be well to add a few more of the latest statistics. It has four banks: the *Lowell*, with a capital of £300,000; the *Railroad*, capital \$600,000; the *Appleton*, capital \$150,000; and the *Prescott* capital \$100,000. In 1850 the population of Lowell was 33,385, having an increase of 12,589 in 10 years. The estimated population of Lowell, in 1853, is 37,000.

To show how large a place Lowell occupies in the manufacturing field of the United States, it may be added that the entire capital invested in cotton manufactures, in the whole United States, is estimated at \$74,000,000; of which Lowell, alone, has nearly \$14,000,000, or nearly *one-fifth* of the whole.

ART. IX.—COMMERCIAL AND FINANCIAL.

THE financial condition of the country continues to improve, taking the New York banks as the index of the monetary movements. The operations of those banks, from the 21st of June to the 24th of December, 1853, were as follows :

	Loans.	Deposits.	Circulation.	Specie.
June 21.....	\$65,520,636	\$30,018,171	\$9,064,106	\$12,174,507
Aug. 6.....	97,809,617	59,410,756	9,510,465	9,746,432
Aug. 13.....	95,562,377	58,166,712	9,451,943	10,654,619
Aug. 20.....	93,866,807	57,317,658	9,424,786	11,102,551
Aug. 27.....	92,386,933	57,431,803	9,427,191	11,319,047
Sept. 3.....	91,741,338	57,502,900	9,554,294	11,368,049
Sept. 10.....	91,108,347	57,545,164	9,517,336	11,380,691
Sept. 17.....	90,190,589	57,612,301	9,508,723	11,860,234
Sept. 24.....	90,092,765	58,312,334	9,477,541	11,340,925
Oct. 1.....	90,149,540	57,968,661	9,521,665	11,231,912
Oct. 8.....	89,128,908	57,965,760	9,673,458	10,206,602
Oct. 15.....	87,837,273	59,068,674	9,464,714	11,330,172
Oct. 22.....	85,367,981	55,748,729	9,388,543	10,303,254
Oct. 29.....	83,400,323	53,335,469	9,300,350	10,806,672
Nov. 5.....	83,092,630	55,500,977	9,492,158	11,771,880
Nov. 12.....	82,882,469	56,301,007	9,387,029	12,823,575
Nov. 19.....	83,717,622	57,446,424	9,151,443	13,691,324
Nov. 26.....	84,802,530	58,073,076	9,032,769	13,343,196
Dec. 3.....	85,824,756	58,435,207	9,133,886	12,830,772
Dec. 10.....	86,708,028	57,838,076	9,075,704	12,493,760
Dec. 17.....	87,865,073	58,312,478	8,909,830	12,166,030
Dec. 24.....	88,766,402	58,154,302	8,873,764	12,074,490

From this it appears that there was a continual decline of loans down to the 12th of November, when they began to increase. During the fortnight ending December 17, the increase of loans was \$2,000,000, while deposits and specie, during the same time, decreased 1,000,000 each. The movements of the Bank of America from July 11th to December 17, citing Mr. Kettell, were as follows :

	Capital.	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Due B'ks.
June 11.....	\$2,000,000	5,220,817	1,584,124	218,582	2,613,335	3,296,423
Sept. 17.....	2,000,000	4,669,828	998,833	326,235	2,114,624	2,265,942
Dec. 10.....	2,000,000	3,428,263	1,035,658	165,519	2,325,325	—

This bank called in loans to September 17, \$619,989, and paid out \$645,291 in specie, and 107,653 circulation—together, \$1,372,433. Of this, \$498,711 was paid to depositors, \$873,722 to banks on balances. From September 17 to December 10, the bank received from loans \$1,241,565 and \$210,701 from deposits, together, \$1,432,266, of which, \$100,000 was specie, and the balance, \$1,332,000, must have been paid to country banks on balances, which would reduce the amount to \$900,000, against \$3,296,423 in July. The large exports of produce will probably, after the fall goods have been paid for, leave larger balances than ever with our banks, to be again employed for speculation.

The arrivals of gold from September 3d to December 31st, from California, at New York, and its shipments thence during 1852 and 1853, together with the balance in treasury at the close of each week, and the rates of sterling, were as follows:

1852				1853			
	Received.	Expord.	Sterling.		Received.	Expord.	Sterling.
Sept. 3.	3,029,001	243,970	10 a 10 $\frac{1}{2}$	6,967,190	1,446,523	2,618	9 a 9 $\frac{1}{2}$
" 10.	..	793,187	10 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 10 $\frac{1}{2}$	6,569,874	..	416,956	9 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 9 $\frac{1}{2}$
" 17.	1,330,122	347,630	10 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 10 $\frac{1}{2}$	6,733,353	683,937	10,000	9 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 9 $\frac{1}{2}$
" 24.	..	734,742	10 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 10 $\frac{1}{2}$	7,175,556	..	561,116	9 a 9 $\frac{1}{2}$
Oct. 2.	..	462,908	10 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 10 $\frac{1}{2}$	7,278,211	1,845,826	252,561	9 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 9 $\frac{1}{2}$
" 8.	2,024,950	817,119	10 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 10 $\frac{1}{2}$	6,958,190	1,000,000	1,325,480	9 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 10
" 15.	2,000,000	316,792	10 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 10 $\frac{1}{2}$	6,375,399	2,034,361	996,780	9 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 10
" 22.	150,000	787,823	10 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 10 $\frac{1}{2}$	5,973,889	..	1,932,414	9 a 9 $\frac{1}{2}$
" 29.	2,300,000	75,533	9 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 10 $\frac{1}{2}$	5,914,788	3,000,000	502,963	8 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 9 $\frac{1}{2}$
Nov. 4.	..	149,773	9 a 10	5,936,252	..	1,561,321	9 a 9 $\frac{1}{2}$
" 11.	2,195,888	51,651	9 a 10	5,801,905	2,652,475	461,123	9 a 9 $\frac{1}{2}$
" 19.	300,000	436,389	9 a 10	5,549,063	..	525,052	9 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 9 $\frac{1}{2}$
" 26.	..	32,610	9 a 10 $\frac{1}{2}$	5,360,385	..	636,400	9 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 9 $\frac{1}{2}$
Dec. 3.	2,710,000	503,660	9 a 10 $\frac{1}{2}$	5,403,952	2,434,823	688,466	9 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 9 $\frac{1}{2}$
" 10.	..	277,180	10 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 10 $\frac{1}{2}$	5,451,007	..	898,114	9 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 9 $\frac{1}{2}$
" 17.	2,596,140	374,350	9 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 10 $\frac{1}{2}$	4,459,948	3,126,000	1,232,352	9 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 9 $\frac{1}{2}$
" 24.	354,000	35,000	9 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 10 $\frac{1}{2}$	2,902,708	1,430,910	1,375,000	9 a 9 $\frac{1}{2}$
" 31.	511,880	174,160	8 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 10	2,607,471	..	500,000	9 a 9 $\frac{1}{2}$
	\$19,402,031	6,709,563			\$19,654,855	13,899,566	

The export of specie, monthly, from New York to foreign countries, from January 1st, 1853, to December 24, 1853, as compared with 1852, is as follows:

EXPORTS OF SPECIE FROM NEW YORK TO FOREIGN PORTS.

	1852		1853	
	Export.	Bank of Eng-land Rate.	Export.	Bank of Eng-land Rate.
January.....	\$2,808,958	10 a 10 $\frac{1}{2}$	\$747,679	8 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 9 $\frac{1}{2}$
February.....	3,551,543	10 a 10 $\frac{1}{2}$	1,121,030	9 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 10
March.....	611,984	9 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 10 $\frac{1}{2}$	593,470	8 a 10
April.....	200,266	9 a 9 $\frac{1}{2}$	767,055	8 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 9 $\frac{1}{2}$
May.....	1,834,803	9 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 10 $\frac{1}{2}$	2,169,467	9 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 10
June.....	3,356,355	10 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 10 $\frac{1}{2}$	3,264,282	9 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 9 $\frac{1}{2}$
July.....	2,971,499	10 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 10 $\frac{1}{2}$	3,924,612	9 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 10
August.....	2,935,833	10 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 10 $\frac{1}{2}$	1,183,673	8 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 10 $\frac{1}{2}$
September.....	2,192,405	10 a 10 $\frac{1}{2}$	1,244,192	8 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 9 $\frac{1}{2}$
October.....	2,452,301	10 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 10 $\frac{1}{2}$	4,737,972	9 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 10
November.....	800,813	9 a 10	3,855,775	9 a 9 $\frac{1}{2}$
December 31.....	503,660	9 a 10	688,466	9 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 9 $\frac{1}{2}$
December 10th.....	277,180	10 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 10 $\frac{1}{2}$	898,114	9 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 9 $\frac{1}{2}$
December 17th.....	273,375	9 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 10 $\frac{1}{2}$	1,332,352	9 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 9 $\frac{1}{2}$
December 24th.....	35,000	9 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 10 $\frac{1}{2}$	1,000,000	9 a 9 $\frac{1}{2}$
Total.....	\$24,617,295		\$21,751,971	

The imports of the year just closed, have been greater than those of any previous year since the commencement of the government, they having attained to the enormous sum of \$93,499,086.

The figures for the three years are as follows:*

	1851.	1852.	1853.
Total imports.....	\$54,442,806	\$56,230,114	\$94,724,748
Total ent'd for warehousing.....	8,454,208	5,436,030	8,774,338
Total ent'd at the port.....	\$62,897,104	\$61,650,144	\$93,499,086
Showing an increase of \$31,842,943 over last year, and \$30,601,952 over 1851.			

* U. S. Economist, Dec. 31.

Showing an increase of \$31,842,942, over last year, and \$30,601,982 over 1851.

The total imports and exports from New York, for each month in the year 1853, were as follows, as given by the *New York Times*, of January 2:

IMPORTS OF FOREIGN GOODS AT NEW YORK.

1853.	1852.
January.....\$13,402,000	January.....\$10,907,000
February.....17,358,000	February.....9,139,000
March.....19,166,000	March.....12,063,000
April.....14,326,000	April.....10,639,000
May.....14,332,000	May.....7,339,000
June.....17,346,000	June.....9,330,000
July.....20,078,000	July.....12,892,000
August.....19,682,000	August.....15,252,000
September.....16,967,000	September.....12,553,000
October.....11,926,000	October.....8,585,000
November.....12,430,000	November.....8,686,000
December, 28 days.....12,967,000	December, 28 days.....10,176,000
Total.....\$190,016,000	Total.....\$127,531,000
Increase 49 per cent.....	62,485,000
	\$190,016,000

The proportion of imports at New York during the last Treasury year, to the whole amount brought into the United States, was 67 per cent. At this ratio, the total imports for the calendar year would be

67 per cent. at New York.....	\$190,016,000
33 per cent. at other ports.....	93,589,000
Total.....	\$283,005,000

EXPORTS DOMESTIC PRODUCE FROM NEW YORK.

1853.	1852.
January.....\$2,965,000	January.....\$2,419,000
February.....3,325,000	February.....3,353,000
March.....4,705,000	March.....4,313,000
April.....4,224,000	April.....4,244,000
May.....4,166,000	May.....4,250,000
June.....5,057,000	June.....3,566,000
July.....4,883,000	July.....2,966,000
August.....4,540,000	August.....2,341,000
September.....5,579,000	September.....3,289,000
October.....5,459,000	October.....3,496,000
November.....7,489,000	November.....3,529,000
December, 28 days.....6,876,000	December, 28 days.....2,948,000
Total.....\$58,298,000	Total.....\$40,716,000
Increase 43 per cent.....	17,582,000
	\$58,298,000

The proportion of domestic products exported from New York during the fiscal or Treasury year, was 23 per cent. to the whole export of the country. This year the ratio will be increased by reason of the enlarged movemet of grain and flour, and the proportion of the cotton ports of the South correspondently diminished, assuming the average price of cotton to be no higher than last year.

The annexed statement exhibits the value of goods, wares, and merchandise, the growth, produce, and manufacture of the United States, exported to foreign countries during the year ending June 30, 1853:

COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES—VALUE OF EXPORTS.

Product of the Sea.

Fisheries:—	
Oil, spermaceti.....	\$1,418,845
“ whale and other fish.....	223,247
Whalebone.....	1,063,705
Spermaceti candles.....	112,600
Dried or smoked fish.....	371,607
Pickled fish.....	89,400
	<hr/> \$3,279,413

Product of the Forest

Wood:—	
Staves, shingles, hewn timber, &c. \$2,578,149	
Other lumber.....	123,743
Masts and spars.....	129,628
Oak bark and other dyes.....	118,894
Manufactures of wood.....	2,394,122
Naval stores, tar, pitch, rosin, and turpentine.....	1,406,488
Ashes, pot and pearl.....	334,321
	<hr/> 6,065,345
Ginseng.....	133,813
Skins and furs.....	796,101
	<hr/> 7,015,219

Product of Agriculture.

Of animals:—	
Beef, tallow, hides, and horned cattle.....	2,314,554
Butter and cheese.....	862,343
Pork, (pickled,) bacon, lard, and live hogs.....	6,002,324
Horses and mules.....	246,731
Sheep.....	17,808
Wool.....	26,567
	<hr/> 9,570,227
Vegetable food:—	
Wheat.....	4,354,403
Flour.....	14,783,394
Indian corn.....	1,374,077
Indian meal.....	709,974
Rye meal.....	34,186
Rye, oats, and other small grains, and pulse.....	163,824
Blacuit or shipbread.....	454,020
Potatoes.....	152,560
Apples.....	107,383
Rice.....	1,657,658
	<hr/> 23,793,368
	<hr/> 33,363,715
Cotton.....	109,456,404
Tobacco.....	11,319,319
Hemp.....	18,195
Other agricultural products:—	
Flaxseed.....	7,719
Hops.....	43,054
Brown sugar.....	33,856
Indigo.....	36
	<hr/> 81,063
Total.....	<hr/> <hr/> \$913,417,007

Manufactures:—	
Wax.....	113,602
Refined Sugar.....	375,770
Chocolate.....	10,230
Spirits from grain.....	141,173
“ “ molasses.....	329,381
Molasses.....	17,582
Vinegar.....	20,443
Beer, ale, porter & cider.....	64,677
Linseed oil.....	15,468
Spirits of turpentine.....	347,492
Household furniture.....	714,556
Hats.....	91,261
Saddlery.....	48,329
Tallow candles and soap.....	681,342
Snuff and tobacco.....	1,671,560
Leather boots and shoes.....	673,708
Cables and cordage.....	103,216
Gunpowder.....	180,048
Salt.....	119,729
Lead.....	5,540
Coaches and other carriages.....	184,407
Iron, pig, bar, and nails.....	181,998
“ castings.....	220,420
“ all manufactures of.....	2,007,224
Copper and brass, all manufactures of.....	108,205
Medical drugs.....	327,073
	<hr/> 8,844,404

Cotton piece goods:—	
Paint'd or col'd.....	1,066,167
Uncolored.....	6,920,485
Cotton, thread and yarn.....	22,594
All manufactures of.....	723,648
	<hr/> 8,768,894

Flax and hemp:—	
Cloth and thread.....	2,924
Bags and all manufactures of.....	13,660
Wearing apparel.....	239,733
Earthen and stoneware.....	53,683
Combs and buttons.....	31,395
Brushes of all kinds.....	6,612
Billiard tables and apparatus.....	1,673
Umbrellas, parasols and sun-shades.....	6,183
Morocco & other leather not sold by the pound.....	6,448
Fire engines and apparatus.....	9,662
Printing presses & types.....	32,250
Musical instruments.....	52,397
Books and maps.....	142,604
Paper and stationery.....	122,212
Paints and varnish.....	83,020
Glass.....	170,561
Tin.....	22,988
Powder and lead.....	14,064
Marble and stone.....	47,028
Gold and silver, and gold leaf.....	11,873
Gold and silver coin.....	23,548,535
Artificial flowers and jewelry.....	66,397
Trunks.....	27,149
Brick and lime.....	32,625
	<hr/> 33,515,361
Coal.....	336,003
Ice.....	175,056
Articles not enumerated:—	
Manufactured.....	3,788,700
Raw produce.....	1,324,305
	<hr/> \$913,417,007

EXPORTS OF FLOUR, ETC.

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	1852		1853	
	Bbls.	Value.	Bbls.	Value.
Total in December.....	91,336	\$489,727	281,131	\$2,056,577
Total in November.....	130,304	634,565	301,818	2,761,746
Total in October.....	89,883	419,061	180,733	1,306,498
Total in September.....	130,933	574,888	186,835	1,006,328
Total in August.....	146,071	591,562	183,027	954,881
Total in July.....	140,976	574,965	193,877	915,815
Total in June.....	177,244	751,533	113,156	545,755
Total in May.....	111,868	492,946	65,609	334,774
Total in April.....	58,343	264,467	130,449	657,562
Total in March.....	76,305	376,521	167,562	937,421
Total in February.....	52,774	255,992	121,706	719,804
Total in January.....	32,326	149,779	96,689	579,936
Previously.....	1,212,259	\$5,462,780	2,045,892	\$11,488,431
Total since January 1.....	1,338,357	5,576,006	2,112,576	11,961,348
Increase.....	67,684	6,383,342

The following shows the exports of cotton from New-York during the past year, as compared with 1852, the first total in the table being the amount for the last week of the year :

To	1852		1853	
	Bales.	Value.	Bales.	Value.
Liverpool.....	3,460	\$150,479	4,235	\$197,197
Glasgow.....	35	1,290
Havre.....	136	5,200
Antwerp.....	176	7,578
Bremen.....	96	882
Hamburg.....	110	5,156
Total.....	3,486	\$151,361	4,692	\$216,421
Previously.....	330,080	12,380,955	281,292	13,714,336
Since January 1.....	334,466	\$12,541,316	285,984	\$13,980,747
Increase.....	1,380,431
Decrease.....	46,462	..

The total amount of breadstuffs exported from New-York since the 14th of May last, was 27,245 bbls. ; value, \$99,316. The following shows the amount of breadstuffs exported from the United States to Great Britain and Ireland since September 1, 1853 :

From	Flour. Bbls.	Meal. Bbls.	Wheat. Bush.	Corn. Bush.
New-York, December 27.....	490,617	2,739	3,506,173	412,675
New-Orleans, " 17.....	11,435	74,386
Philadelphia, " 23.....	168,434	10,378	384,667	309,764
Baltimore, " 21.....	133,655	507	174,933	31,226
Boston, " 23.....	10,036	186	5,800	45,746
Other Ports, " 17.....	7,714	..	13,206	3,740
Total.....	821,891	13,710	4,084,793	897,725
Same time last year.....	360,284	3	2,407,261	56,600
Increase.....	455,607	13,707	1,677,532	841,125
Decrease.....

TO THE CONTINENT OF EUROPE.

	Flour. Bbls.	Wheat. Bush.	Corn. Bush.
From New-York to December 27.....	416,929	1,328,860	90,143
Other ports to latest dates.....	84,337	14,932	13,629
Total.....	501,266	1,343,792	33,831

Since the 1st of June last, the wheat and corn exported from New-York, including the last week of the year, was as follows :

To	1852		1853	
	Bush.	Value.	Bush.	Value.
Liverpool.....	50,076	\$69,048	107,033	\$174,000
Glasgow.....	44,491	83,330
Havre.....	60,879	106,102
Antwerp.....	9,681	14,070
Marseilles.....	7,563	13,633
Total.....	50,076	\$69,048	229,647	\$391,175
Total in December.....	595,541	341,193	1,026,370	1,740,062
Total in November.....	552,357	601,663	1,721,940	2,702,268
Total in October.....	549,316	496,625	1,147,079	1,667,238
Total in September.....	614,683	641,907	846,036	1,163,176
Previously.....	2,623,631	2,675,379	6,184,402	8,937,638
Since June 1.....	2,670,707	\$2,744,427	6,414,049	\$9,348,803

Exports of corn from New-York to foreign ports for the week ending December 29, 1853, compared with the corresponding week of last year :

To	1852		1853	
	Bush.	Value.	Bush.	Value.
Liverpool.....	126,244	\$123,733
British West Indies.....	400	344	746	618
Total Corn.....	400	\$344	126,990	\$124,351
Total in December.....	9,018	7,068	373,900	284,218
Total in November.....	8,856	6,318	136,917	113,997
Total in October.....	9,764	6,759	6,518	5,716
Total in September.....	19,110	13,698	16,919	14,835
Previously.....	335,869	219,130	472,283	337,394
Since June 1.....	336,269	\$219,474	599,273	\$461,676

The following exhibits the exports of beef and pork from New York, for the last week of the year, and for the whole of 1853, as compared with 1852 :

		1852		1853	
BEEF.		Bbls. & Treas.	Value.	Bbls. & Treas.	Value.
Liverpool.....	237	\$4,266	1,157	\$24,567	
British West Indies.....	12	180	
Danish West Indies.....	15	907	
Central America.....	12	108	
British Guiana.....	10	170	
British Honduras.....	33	429	
Total Beef.....	292	\$5,105	1,184	\$24,942	
Total in December.....	4,295	76,102	4,463	80,622	
Total in November.....	4,935	71,796	4,400	61,270	
Total in October.....	1,116	14,678	2,732	20,774	
Total in September.....	1,427	20,439	2,978	40,374	
Previously.....	40,618	608,538	44,976	649,154	
Since Jan. 1.....	40,910	\$613,643	46,160	\$674,096	
Increase.....	5,250	60,453	
PORK.					
Liverpool.....	200	3,500	
Glasgow.....	33	500	
Africa.....	20	220	22	269	
British West Indies.....	56	994	6	90	
Dutch West Indies.....	44	220	
Danish West Indies.....	122	1,260	
Central America.....	18	297	
British Guiana.....	105	1,316	
British Honduras.....	100	1,753	
Porto Rico.....	75	1,132	31	407	
Total Pork.....	400	\$5,505	199	\$2,332	
Total in December.....	1,860	28,884	5,807	66,551	
Total in November.....	5,955	92,374	5,560	80,218	
Total in October.....	2,987	51,579	5,220	82,013	
Total in September.....	2,800	54,101	6,556	84,787	
Previously.....	30,423	639,910	70,705	980,056	
Since Jan. 1.....	30,823	\$645,475	70,964	\$982,300	
Increase.....	31,141	336,915	

Such an immense interchange of products as has taken place during the year 1853, between this and foreign countries, is without a parallel in the annals of trade; and it seems to have been carried on upon a perfectly sound basis, since among all our importers not a single failure has occurred. Not even a stringent condition of the money market, ever since the 1st of August, has affected them seriously.

ART. X.—AGRICULTURE.

PRODUCTS OF CALIFORNIA AND MEXICO—AGRICULTURAL DEPARTMENT OF THE PATENT OFFICE—COTTON IN ALGERIA—CULTIVATION OF THE OREGON PEA—MEANS OF DESTROYING THE BOLL-WORM—MANUFACTURE OF COTTON-SEED OIL.

SINCE the publication of our last number we have had the pleasure of witnessing some of the agricultural products of California, of which we hear so much from time to time. Some of the accounts of these products have been looked upon as entirely unworthy of credit, or at least greatly exaggerated; but we have had ocular demonstration of their truth. It is known that efforts have been making, and are still made, by the commissioner of patents, to effect an interchange of natural products with other countries for the purpose of improving agricultural science in this country. To effect this object, circulars have been sent to all parts of the world, requesting persons to send to our government specimens of all of the agricultural products of their respective countries. This very inefficient means of effecting the object desired, has nevertheless resulted in some valuable and curious exchanges of products.

While visiting the agricultural department, recently, of the Patent Office, we had the pleasure of witnessing some of these exchanges from South America, Mexico, and from California. From Mexico we saw specimens of the *frijoler*, or Mexican bean; and from California we saw the ordinary potatoes of that country, long and cylindrical, a foot in length by from four to five inches in diameter. They resemble, in all but size, the potatoes (*solanum tuberosum*) of the northern States. California onions were also shown us, which measure about ten inches in diameter by three inches in thickness. Their shape is that of the common garden onion. The gigantic heads of the California wheat were also exhibited, alongside of which our cisalpine wheat is perfectly dwarf-like.

Those who visit Washington should not fail to pay a visit to the agricultural department of the Patent Office. It will richly repay them for their trouble.

The French Government has, within the last two years, been making considerable efforts to cultivate cotton in Algeria. A late number of the *Moniteur* says:

The cultivation of cotton, in Algeria, is rapidly advancing. The magnificent impulse received this season is well known. From a few sparse plots, which it occupied last year, the culture this year (1853) has extended over more than 500 hectares (1,236 acres), and nothing could be more satisfactory than the reports with respect to it which have just reached us. If some failures, owing to the inexperience of planters, cast a shade over the picture, the crop in general promises to be all that can be desired, both as to quality and quantity. It may be considered as settled henceforth that the culture of cotton is acquired to the country. The problem is resolved. To time and to intelligence is now left the task of completing the development of this rich culture, which will in a few years emancipate French manufacturers from the dependence on foreign production in which they are now held for a most notable portion of the supplies they require. But the administration has not been alone in comprehending the magnificent resources offered by the colony for the supply of cotton. At its sitting of 15th February last, the Chamber of Commerce of Algiers voted 500 francs from the reserve fund, as a premium for the best cotton produced on plantations of a certain extent. The prize, which was warmly disputed by numerous competitors, has just been awarded to a colonist of the arrondissement of Blidah, whose plantation, comprising eight hectares (20 acres) was pronounced to be in the most prosperous condition. Eight other cultivators received honorable notices. The Manufacturers' Society of Mulhouse having repeatedly made use of the cotton and other products of Algeria, has shown its desire to co-operate for the encouragement of such agricultural enterprises in Algeria as seem of a nature to contribute at once to the prosperity of the colony and of the manufactures of France. The Society has just established premiums of gold and silver medals for the encouragement of the growers of cotton and of madder in the colony.

The Minister of War, at Paris, has established a permanent exhibition of the agricultural products of Algeria; and the government, on its part, has just established premiums to be awarded after each season to the planters who shall produce the finest crops.

Mr. A. B. Rozell, of Nashville, Tenn., has recently given the results of his experiments to test the utility of the celebrated Oregon pea. He says:

"The pea grows on a bush from five to six feet high, with five or six large branches near the ground; and they, with the main stalk, put out other branches, until two stalks would make a bunch as large round as a tobacco hogshead, or near it. It grows more like cotton than anything else I know of, only it is much larger, and the branches not so horizontal. After leaving the ground a little, all these branches, with the branches they put out at every joint, bear from four to ten pods in a bunch, with about fifteen peas in a pod; so they are hung with peas pretty much from top to bottom. The leaves are very large and beautiful; and, taking it altogether, it is the most beautiful and rich plant I ever saw.

"The stalks and leaves make, perhaps, the finest hay in the world—stock preferring it to any other, and yielding a greater abundance than any other. The hay and pea together is a better and far cheaper feed than can be raised from anything else in the United States, for horses, mules, cattle, sheep, and hogs. I believe I can raise more and better feed for my stock from one acre of land than I can from five of anything I know of. It will grow on land so poor that it would produce little or nothing else; and tolerable poor land is better for it, and will produce more, than rich land. This may appear strange to some, but it is nevertheless true. Rich land will produce more stalk, but not so many peas; in this respect it is like cotton. As an improver of the soil, I consider it far superior to clover, or anything known in Tennessee, when fed off on the ground and then plowed in. Now, taking it altogether, I consider it one of the greatest acquisitions to the farmers of the valley of the Mississippi that have been introduced for the last thirty years; and I am of the opinion it will prove a greater blessing to the farmers of Tennessee, and surrounding States, than the many boasted railroads that are now being built among us, and that many of us are being heavily taxed to pay for their construction."

Mr. Rozell had part of his crop ready for market on the 2d instant. He would raise about forty bushels of peas this season. All the peas of last year's crop were sold at \$2 per quart, or \$1 per pint, or \$80 per bushel. They can be had this year at \$40 per bushel, or \$1 per quart, or 50 cents per pint.

Prof. L. Harper, LL. D., of Alabama, has recently published in the *American Cotton Planter*, some valuable observations on the subject of preventing the ravages of the caterpillar, or boll-worm, in our cotton fields of the South. The ruinous devastations of this insect are known, by long and sad experience, to every cotton planter of the South; everything on the subject, therefore, is of interest. Whoever shall discover a mode of ridding the cotton fields of the South of this destructive animal will immortalize his name, and merit the perpetual gratitude of the entire cotton-growing world. We shall quote a few of the observations of Prof. Harper on this subject:

When the small-pox, says he, first appeared among the human family, thousands, yea, millions of men were hurried to the grave by that frightful scourge; whole cities and countries were depopulated, a remedy was despaired of, and safety was only sought in flight. By the exertions of skillful men the remedy has, nevertheless, been found, and the dreadful enemy of mankind is very nearly rendered harmless; not ten men die of small-pox now where formerly hundred thousands used to die. So it will be with the scourge of our cotton fields, but no exertions have hitherto been made to discover a remedy. In order to find it, the disease must be perfectly understood. We know, indeed, very little more of the boll-worm than that it is the larva of a noctua (night-swarming butterfly or moth), which feeds exclusively upon the green fruit of the cotton plant; it perforates the green bolls, creeps into them, eats the interior of them, especially the immature wool, and destroys every boll which it touches. It undergoes the same changes as all the other lepidopterous insects. The perfect insect, sylpha, butterfly, or moth, lays a large number of eggs, from two to three hundred, which hatch very soon after they are laid, and produce young caterpillars, or larvæ, generally called boll-worms; these feed upon the very young and tender cotton bolls, even when they are still surrounded by the flower. The young

larvæ or caterpillars grow very quick, being so voracious as to eat in twenty-four hours, more food than their own weight. They are soon able to attack larger bolls, and then they devour whatever they can possibly perforate. When the caterpillars have attained their full size, and changed their skins three or four times, they leave the cotton plant, and undergo a second transformation into chrysalids, nymphæ, puppæ, or cocoons. In this state they take no nourishment. After having remained in this state a few days or weeks, they undergo the third and last transformation or metamorphosis, into sylphæ or butterflies, and the circle is complete.

That much we know from the analogy of other lepidopterous insects, and superficial observation; but that is by no means enough for finding a remedy against the fearful increase of the boll-worm. For that purpose it is absolutely necessary to know:

1. Where do these insects originate from?
2. Do they emigrate, or are they engendered by a *generatio spontanea*, *æquivoca* (by spontaneous generation), in the cotton fields and on the cotton plants?
3. Do these insects live during the winter, or hibernate?
4. In what state do they hibernate; as eggs, larvæ, chrysalids, or sylphæ?
5. Where do they hibernate?
6. Where are they in the spring and summer, until they make their visible appearance on the cotton plant?
7. Where do the sylphæ or butterflies lay their eggs?
8. When do the caterpillars generally make their first appearance?
9. What is the necessary state of the atmosphere for their appearance and increase?
10. What is the necessary state of the cotton plant for their appearance and increase?
11. Are there now years when no caterpillars or boll-worms appear?
12. What substances or elements are necessary for their existence?
13. What elements do they consist of?
14. What substances or elements are hurtful to them, &c.?

Not a single one of these questions can, as yet, be answered with any certainty; and it is, indeed, not an easy matter, as it will be perceived, to acquire sufficient information to answer them. This requires deep entomological and chemical skill, and a man's whole time and ingenuity must be devoted to these researches. But in that way, we may be certain a *remedy against the evil will be found out*.

As a means of obtaining answers to the above important interrogatories, and thus enabling the planter to protect his fields against the ravages of the boll-worm, Prof. Harper makes the following suggestions for the consideration of the *agricultural public, and especially the Agricultural Association and their Executive Council of the cotton-planting States*:

1. Let the time of inactivity be at an end, and declare at once war to the common and unrelenting enemy.
2. Let the Agricultural Association of the slaveholding States and the special Agricultural Societies of each of those States and their executive committees, take at once the matter in hand, and direct operations.
3. Let them appoint at once an entomologist and chemist for each of the cotton-planting States, but select men who are really skillful and reliable. Chemical knowledge is necessary in this case; for it will be requisite not only to analyze the cotton plant, and the soil in which it grows repeatedly; but an exact analysis of the boll-worm, and even the atmospheric air, may be necessary.

The State Entomologist and Chemist can then serve for two purposes:

a. To devote his whole time, skill, and ingenuity, during the spring and summer months, for entomological researches concerning the two enemies of the cotton plant, the boll-worm, and the army-worm, and to solve the questions above alluded to.

b. To act at the same time, especially during the winter months, as a *Chemist of the State*, and perform, according to the resolutions of the Agricultural Convention of the slaveholding or planting States drawn up at their meeting in Montgomery, Alabama, on Monday the 2d day of May, 1853, under the direction of the executive committee of the Agricultural Association of each of the slaveholding States, the analysis of soil, vegetable matter, manure, minerals, mineral water, &c., and have for that purpose a regular laboratory in a central and accessible place of the State.

Such a State Entomologist and Chemist has not only an *arduous task* to perform, but he has to keep a very extensive and dear apparatus, and to provide himself with a private conveyance in order to travel to places where his presence is required; he will even find it now and then necessary to have an assistant; he must, therefore, have not only a *very liberal salary*, but also a certain sum for the purchase and preservation of a costly apparatus.

4. The salary of such a State Entomologist and Chemist, and the purchase and preservation of an extensive entomological and chemical apparatus, require annually a good sum of money; and the question obtrudes itself—where shall the money come from? Nothing, really, is easier than to get the money for the above purposes. It would be wrong to lay any claims for that purpose on the State Treasury; for the employment of a State Entomologist and Chemist does not benefit the whole State: it benefits only a part of its inhabitants, the agricultural public; they have to pay it, and can do it with the greatest ease without even feeling it. I propose for that purpose—

5. Let every planter of the different slaveholding States pay from each bale of cotton which he makes the trifling sum of *two cents*; such a tax, trifling as it is for every individual, will amount, in the State of Alabama for instance, to very nearly \$10,000 a year, and will be sufficient to pay the Entomologist and Chemist a salary of \$5,000, sustain an apparatus, and have a handsome sum left for experiments, &c. In States where the cotton crop is not large enough, the tax must be higher. In order to enforce such a tax and collect it, it will be necessary to petition the Legislature to pass a law for levying such a tax, and have it collected by the tax collectors of the different counties, who may then pay it over to the Treasurers of the Agricultural Associations of the States.

6. As soon as all the States have appointed their Entomologists, they must meet at least twice a year, exchange their experience, and form plans for operations.

Alabama raises the largest quantity of cotton. She has the greatest interest in the destruction of the enemy of the cotton plant. Let her take the lead in the above undertaking, and the other States will certainly soon imitate her example.

Our attention has been recently directed to the subject of *Cotton-Seed Oil*, by an article in the *New Orleans Daily Delta*, from the pen of Dr. Edward Jenner Coxe, of that city. The superiority of cotton-seed oil for various purposes, is well known; and a silver medal was awarded to Mr. Wilbur last October, at the annual exhibition of the American Institute, held at New York, for a specimen of the oil which he exhibited. It is known to all, that the cotton seed of the en-

tire cotton crop, is annually thrown away, as useless. Dr. Coxe shows conclusively, that, in so doing, the planters throw away what they might make worth to themselves more than \$38,000,000, by manufacturing from the seed, oil, soap, &c.

"The conclusive proof of this assertion," says Dr. Coxe, "will be found in the following statement, furnished by Mr. Woodall, which corresponds with those made by Mr. W. P. Converse and myself.

The Cotton crop of the United States,	3,000,000 bales,
At an average weight, per bale, of 400	
lbs., will yield of Ginned Cotton	1,200,000,000 lbs.
To each pound of Cotton there are of	
seed 3 lbs., giving	3,600,000,000 "
Retained for planting purposes, one-	
half, making	1,800,000,000 "
Leaving for manufacturing purposes,	
oil, soap, &c.,	1,800,000,000 "

Now, 100 lbs. of cotton-seed will produce 2 gallons of oil, 48 lbs. of oil-cake, and 6½ lbs. of soap-stock; which last, with additional ingredients, of small value pecuniarily, will make 20 lbs. of soap. Consequently, 1,800,000,000 lbs. of cotton seed will yield 36,000,000 gallons of oil, 864,000,000 lbs. of oil-cake, 106,000,000 lbs. of soap stock; which, at the lowest estimate, will produce

36,000,000 gallons oil at 75 cents,	\$27,000,000
864,000,000 lbs. oil-cake at 1c.,	8,640,000
106,000,000 lbs. soap stock at 3 cts.,	3,180,000

Total estimated value, \$38,820,000
\$38,000,000; or suppose that one-third be deducted to satisfy skeptics, the gross amount of \$25,000,000 is by far too great a loss to the community not to demand some efforts to reclaim it.

These results of Dr. Coxe, if they can be relied on, are truly astonishing. Of course, every thing depends upon the correctness of his data. That oil can be manufactured from cotton seed in large quantities, there can be no doubt; and that the oil is of great value, we are equally certain. The only question to be tested is whether the cost of manufacture will be sufficiently low to place the oil in fair competition with other oils. We hope that the experiment will be tried, for the purpose of settling the question—a question which involves millions of dollars.

For many important facts regarding the manufacture and value of cotton-seed oil, Dr. Coxe acknowledges himself indebted to Mr. Livingston, a respectable citizen of New Orleans. The oil, says Dr. Coxe, would sell in any quantity in New York at \$1 25 per gallon. It is now selling in New Orleans at \$1 by the barrel. In reference to the uses of this oil, Dr. Coxe observes:

"In reference to the soap made from cotton oil, it is, in all respects, equal to any, whether imported or of domestic production. It makes a good lather, softens the skin, is good to shave with; and, with time and practical ex-

perience, this soap will not, nor does it now, suffer by comparison with the best of Guerlain, Low, or others of note.

As regards the oil, for dietetic or medicinal purposes, few could detect, if unapprised of its source, which I have practically proved, the least difference between it and the far-famed olive oil of Italy. Eaten with salad or rice, it has, to all intents and purposes, the same flavor and taste as are given by the best productions of Plaignol, Avigdor or Sue.

To the politeness of the proprietors of the cotton-oil manufactory in New Orleans, corner of Girod and Circus streets, Messrs. Wilbur & Co., I was indebted for an agreeable hour passed in examining the productions from cotton seed, and certainly, too much praise cannot be awarded to gentlemen who have devoted many years of toil, and gone to heavy expenses, in bringing this important subject to its present state of perfection. Who will not say that they, and particularly Mr. Wilbur, who is the patentee of the great improvements in the machinery required for the purpose, deserve richly the most unbounded success? Can it be doubted, in view of the facts disclosed, that capitalists will be ready and willing to lend their aid in furtherance of such ends, in case their assistance should be called for?

To those who may never have seen these valuable productions, I shall be happy to give them an opportunity of so doing, by calling at No. 95 Camp street, the proprietors having sent me samples for that purpose.

Possibly it is well to observe, that this oil will burn quite as well as the best sperm or lard oil.

The fact that candles can be made from this oil has not been practically proved, but there is a strong foreshadowing that such will shortly be announced.

ART. XI.—INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

OPELOUSAS AND GREAT WESTERN RAILROAD—MONTGOMERY AND PENSACOLA RAILROAD—RAILROADS IN NORTH CAROLINA—PANAMA RAILROAD—NEW ORLEANS, JACKSON, AND GREAT NORTHERN RAILROAD—EVANSVILLE AND ILLINOIS RAILROAD—MOBILE AND OHIO RAILROAD—RAILWAY WONDERS OF THE WORLD.

In the railroad movements of the country at large, all is animation; "progress" is the order of the day; stagnation is a thing unknown; and among the people "there is no such word as fail."

From the New-Orleans papers we learn that the opening of the *Opelousas and Great Western Railroad* took place on the 3d of December. The eastern terminus is at Algiers, opposite the *Place d'Armes*, in New Orleans. The guests invited to attend the opening, says the *N. O. Crescent*, were about 200, comprising members of the city press, presidents of the different railroads, members of the legislature and of the city council, citizens generally, and distinguished strangers. Among the number we observed the commanding figure of the Mexican General Robles, of ex-Chief-Justice George Eustis, General John L. Lewis, and that Nestor of the bar, Col. John R. Grymes, together with other notable *habitués*, not

less distinguished for their talents than for their important public services.

At a few minutes after 11 o'clock, the company left the foot of Canal-street on a ferry boat provided for the occasion, serenaded by a brass band, and arrived at the depot at Algiers. There a few minutes' leisure was offered to examine the extensive buildings of the company, which are laid out on a grand scale. The depot is a spacious building, and is laid off with a view to very large business. It was apparent from the aspect of things around that the prospect of the completion of the road had already had its effects; and this was evident from the numerous new buildings completed, or in process of construction, and from the bustle and activity that pervaded the locality. The locomotive upon the road is one of the finest ever constructed, and capable of a speed of something like sixty miles to the hour. The track is laid with T rail of heavy iron, on cross-ties of cedar, and in point of firmness and durability is second to no other work of the kind in the States. A gauge of $5\frac{1}{2}$ feet is given to the track, thus insuring it against vibration, and imparting greater security, with a capacity for extraordinary speed. Several fine cars were provided for the occasion, and open seats on freight-trucks for those who wished to enjoy the luxuries of the open air and unobstructed vision.

The road is open a distance of 17 miles from New Orleans, passing through the great sugar region of Louisiana. For the benefit of those who have not seen that delightful and almost tropical region, we quote the following from the *Crescent*:

"Along the first two miles of the road, and a half mile back from the river, the land is low and marshy. Beyond Gretna the region of plantations commences, and immense sugar fields spread out to the right and left, with here and there vegetable gardens, the products of which daily supply the city markets. The green and luxuriant appearance of the cane fields, stretching away to magnificent distances, afforded a pleasant relief to the eye of the long pent-up denizen of the town. Spacious and commodious dwelling-houses dot the river shore in front of all the plantations, and these are flanked with the white cottages of the black laborers, and surrounded with orange groves, covered with a profusion of ripe and delicious fruit. To the right of the road, and some ten miles above the city, is the Destrahan plantation, with its magnificent mansion, constructed in the Gothic style, with towers and turrets, resembling those strange structures of feudal times we read of in black-letter volumes, and conjuring up odd fancies of mailed warriors, ladies on white palfreys,

troubadours jingling love fancies to sentimental misses, of cross-bows twanging from the castle-keep, and of blood and wounds. From these scenes of culture the thundering train passed rapidly to the region of swamps, where the cypress hangs its solemn drapery of moss; and then again into broad patches of marsh, tenanted by flocks of wild-fowl that sprang from their concealment in terrified haste, and sped away on whistling wings. These passed, sugar estates again intervened, that stretched away to the horizon's edge. In the midst of one of these the train stopped, having arrived at the present terminus of the road."

A magnificent dinner was prepared for the guests at the western terminus, and speeches were delivered—by Mr. Gibbs, the engineer of the road; by General Henderson; Mr. Buchner H. Payne, the superintendent of the road; by Alexander Walker, of the *Delta*; and Mr. E. W. Johnson, of the *Crescent*. Each of the gentlemen was happy in his efforts, and received the flattering applause of the company.

Thus passed off, says the *Crescent*, the opening day of perhaps the greatest enterprise of the age, and thus were made the first revolutions of the iron wheels that are one day to rumble upon the distant shores of the Pacific Ocean. The great Pacific railroad has commenced—its beginning is a reality, and the friends of the enterprise can work on, with a high hope that at no distant day they may be enabled to rejoice over its completion. There is to be no flagging in the good work, and its course is onward!

This is, indeed, the commencement of the great Pacific Railroad via El Paso. It will soon cross the ancient boundary of the United States—the Sabine—and be stretching away over the sunny plains of Texas towards New Mexico.

We learn from the *Louisiana Courier*, that the *Montgomery and Pensacola Railroad* is now entirely surveyed, and that the whole of it will soon be put under contract. In Florida, with the exception of a few curves made in ascending the hill at Pine Barren, the "whole route consists of fine straight lines, and the grade of 24 feet, of which we have already spoken, is the greatest in the whole distance. The whole line in Florida will be 42 miles in length."

The remainder of the route through Alabama, to Montgomery, is found to be very favorable—the heaviest grade, which is near Sparta, being forty feet to the mile, and the whole length only seven miles greater than an air-line.

In North Carolina, the *North Carolina Railroad* is progressing rapidly. It is confidently expected that the road

will be completed from Raleigh to Goldsborough, by the 1st of June next.

The *Wilmington and Manchester Railroad* was complete on the 15th of December, except a gap of 9 miles, which was to have been filled up with rails by the 1st of June. We believe that the road is now complete. There is no road in which the traveling public are more interested than in this, since it connects the entire northern system of railroads with that of the South. The completion of this road enables the traveler to go by railroad from Maine to Montgomery, in Alabama.

The *Wilmington and Raleigh Railroad* has been doing a good business during the past year. From the last report, it appears that the total receipts for the year ending October 1, were \$568,900, or \$46,717 more than last year. The expenses for the year were \$406,283, leaving the net profits of the road \$162,616. The liabilities of the Company on the 1st of October, were \$1,156,261.

We find in the *New Orleans Daily Delta* some interesting details, regarding the *Panama Railroad*—a road largely connected with the commerce of this country. The details are furnished by the Directors of the road:

"The whole length of the road from ocean to ocean, is 49 miles, of which 23½ miles, from the Atlantic terminus to Barbacoas on the Chagres river, have been in operation since July, 1852. Various improvements have been made in the superstructure since the road-bed was first laid, and others are being completed. The road is laid with iron of a superior quality, weighing 60 pounds to the yard, and will soon be as perfect in character as any in the United States.

The bridge across the Chagres river will be ready for the passage of trains by the 1st of December, when an additional section of 5½ miles to Gorgona will be opened, and by the 1st of January the cars will pass to the Obispo, 31 miles from Aspinwall. A branch road is under construction from the line of the railroad to the Cruces road, by which means passengers and freight will be transferred directly from the cars to the mules, and the transit will be made from ocean to ocean in 12 hours.

Of the remaining 18 miles of road the grading has been commenced both at the Obispo and Panama termini; and about eight miles have been cleared of timber and prepared for working operations.

In this unfinished section, the summit ridge is crossed, the maximum grade on the Atlantic slope being 61, and on the Pacific slope 70 feet per mile. The heaviest work is at the

summit, where a cutting is encountered 1,300 feet in length, and 24 feet in the greatest depth. It is estimated that, with a force of 5,000 laborers, this section can be completed in six months. Arrangements that can be depended on, have been made for the employment of more than this number; and it is therefore expected that the road will be finished to the Pacific by August 1, 1854. The cost of completing the unfinished section of the road to reach the terminus on the Pacific is estimated at \$1,426,800.

The financial condition of the company is reported thus :

Amount of stock issued,	\$2,621,572
Bonds converted into stock,	92,000
Bonds outstanding,	808,000
Bonds to be issued in conformity with the act of the Legislature, to complete the road	1,478,428
Capital stock as per charter,	\$5,000,000

The company was incorporated by act of the Legislature of New York, with a capital of \$5,000,000. The stock, like most of the great undertakings of the kind, is somewhat depressed, and selling below par. It will have a powerful competitor in the Tehuantepec road, which is now progressing towards a favorable commencement, with the necessary appliances for completing a passage-way from the Gulf of Mexico to the Pacific in a short time.

We learn from the late annual report of the *New-Orleans, Jackson, and Great Northern Railroad Company*, that the entire line of road from New Orleans to Nashville, a distance of 550 miles, has been carefully surveyed, and a location made of 409 miles, between New Orleans and Chickasaw, on the Tennessee river, intersecting the Memphis and Charleston road in Bear Creek valley, 400 miles from New Orleans; 256½ miles have been placed under contract, viz. : 87½ miles from New Orleans to the State line, 95½ miles from the State line to Jackson, 23½ miles from Jackson to Canton, and 50 miles from Aberdeen south. The estimates of the Chief Engineer exhibit \$1,027,090 as the sum necessary to complete the road from the city to the State line; and to meet this expenditure, the means and resources of the company available within the period when needed, are deemed sufficient. The resources of the company, over and above the cost of the road to the State line, amounting to about two millions of dollars, will be applicable to the grading and construction of the road from thence to the Tennessee river.

From this report, made by Mr. James Robb, the President of the company, it appears that his failure to effect a

loan for the company, in London, in July last, was "owing to the advancing rates of interest, caused by the apprehension of a serious deficiency in the harvests, and the probability of political troubles, calculated to disturb confidence among capitalists."

From the report of the chief engineer, it appears that the cars will be running over the road, from New Orleans to the State line, by the 1st of July next. The balance of the ten thousand tons of iron rails ordered from Liverpool, was to be on the ground by the 1st of January. Three locomotives are already purchased.

The *Evansville and Illinois Railroad* is now complete from Evansville to Vincennes.

From the last report of the *Erie Railroad*, it appears that the cost of the road and equipment to the present date, and the expenditures during the past year, were as follows:—

On what account.	Present cost.	Expenditure of year ending Sept. 30, '53.
Grading, transportation of laborers and materials, and gravel and hand-cars.....	\$12,959,619 97.....	\$2,261,889 43
Superstructure.....	2,374,186 03.....	451,219 07
Iron.....	3,764,216 03.....	896,860 58
Stations, buildings, and fixtures, viz:		
Freight and Passenger Depots.....	513,362 87.....	57,887 98
Water Stations and Wood Sheds.....	254,941 21.....	66,324 91
Machine and Workshops.....	223,778 97.....	33,547 84
Machinery in Shops.....	161,604 78.....	28,241 58
Depot and Stores in New York.....	92,974 01.....	4,029 50
Land, land damages, and fences.....	1,159,515 16.....	82,149 49
Locomotives and fixtures.....	1,362,971 45.....	12,984 16
	\$22,807,170 53	\$3,895,134 53

The *Mobile and Ohio Railroad*, to extend from Mobile to the mouth of the Ohio, will have a length of 494 miles; or, including turnouts and branches, 594 miles. The total estimated cost of the road is \$12,000,000. The total means provided for its construction are as follows:—

Stock subscription, sufficient to grade and bridge the road.....	\$5,107,576
State-of-Tennessee bonds equal to \$8,000 per mile of line in that State.....	940,000
Proceeds of mortgage bonds.....	6,000,000

Total.....\$12,047,576

The security for the bonds now issued will be as follows:

Cost of graduation, &c.....	5,101,576
Cost of superstructure and equipment.....	6,900,000
Lands for depots, stations, &c., including 49 acres at Mobile, in addition to lands donated by Congress.....	500,000
One million one hundred and fifty-six acres of land, granted by Congress in aid of a Railroad from Mobile to Chicago, on and along the line of the Road, estimated at the low price of \$5 per acre.....	6,000,000

Total value of security.....\$18,501,576

British Railway Wonders of 1850.—Dickens, in a late number of his "Household Words," thus describes the railway wonders of the United Kingdom for the year 1850. The fancies of Boz will not impair the force or accuracy of the facts and figures, which he has borrowed from official and other reliable sources.

From the unimpeachable record of scarcely credible statistics, it appears that at the end of 1849 there were, in Great Britain and Ireland, 5,596 miles of railway in active operation: upwards of 4,556 are in England, 846 in Scotland, and 494 in Ireland. Besides this, the number of miles which have been authorized by Parliament, and still remain to be finished, is 6,030; so that, if all the lines were completed, the Three Kingdoms would be intersected by a net-work of railroad measuring 12,000 miles; but of this there is only a remote probability, the number of miles in course of active construction being no more than 1,500; so that by the end of the present year it is calculated that the length of finished and operative railway may be about 7,400 miles, or as many as lie between Great Britain and the Cape of Good Hope, with a thousand miles to spare. The number of persons employed on the 30th of June, 1849, in the operative railways, was fifty-four thousand; on the unopened lines, one hundred and four thousand.

When the schemer of the infancy of the giant railway system turns to the passenger account for 1849, he declares he is fairly "knocked over." He finds that the railway passengers are put down at sixty-three million eight hundred thousand; nearly three times the number returned for 1843, and a hundred times as many as took to the road in the days of stage coaches. The passengers of 1849 actually double the sum of the entire population of the Three Kingdoms.

The statement of capital which the 6,000 miles now being hourly traveled over represent, will require the reader to draw a long breath; it is one hundred and ninety-seven and-a-half millions of pounds sterling. Add to this the cash being disbursed for the lines in progress, the total rises to two hundred and twenty millions! The average cost of each mile of railway, including engines, carriages, stations, &c., technically called "plant," is thirty-three thousand pounds.

Has this outlay proved remunerative? The commissioners tell us that the gross receipts from all the railways, in 1849, amounted to eleven millions eight hundred and six thousand pounds; from which if the working expenses be deducted, at the rate of forty-three per cent. (being about an average taken from the published statements of a number of the prin-

cipal companies), there remains a net available profit of about six million seven hundred and twenty-nine thousand four hundred and twenty pounds, to remunerate the holders of property to the amount of one hundred and ninety-seven millions and a half; or at the rate, within a fraction, of three-and-a-half per cent. Here our parent of railway prospectuses chuckles. *He* promised twenty per cent. per annum.

In short, in everything except the dividends, our scheming friend finds that recent fact has outstripped his early fictions. He told the nervous old ladies and shaky "half-pays" on his projected line, that railways were quite as safe as stage coaches. What say the grave records of 1849? The lives of five passengers were lost during that year, and those by one accident—a cause, of course, beyond the control of the victims; eighteen more casualties took place, for which the sufferers had themselves alone to blame. Five lives lost by official mismanagement, out of sixty-four millions of risks, is no very outrageous proportion; especially when we reflect, that taking as a basis the calculations of 1843, the number of miles traveled over per rail during last year, may be set down at eight hundred and forty-five millions; or nine times the distance between the earth and the sun! Such are the railway wonders of the year 1849.

ART. XII.—EDITORIAL, LITERARY, ETC.

MR. FRENCH, of Washington, who has made a valuable improvement in railroad locomotives, by which they are enabled to ascend grades, with very light friction, has more lately patented an "Improved mode of connecting cars upon railroads." It is thought that it will greatly diminish the loss of life on railroads, and make traveling far more secure; it is very simple in its construction, and can be applied to the ordinary cars at but trifling cost.

The cars are made continuous throughout the train, no space being left between them, so that persons in passing from one to another cannot fall between; and in the event of a collision, one car cannot be forced upon another, as is too often the case, to the great loss of life.

The cars, though brought into contact with each other, yet turn freely on curves, and afford less danger of being thrown from the track.

This invention is one of vital interest to the traveling public, and should be

PROPERTY, ETC., IN NEW-ORLEANS—HOWARD ASSOCIATION. 213

introduced at once, as it affords a perfect immunity from the fatal results of collisions, or heedlessness in passing from one car to the other.

The invention is made by James S. French, to whom communications may be addressed, or to Geo. French, agent, Washington, D. C.

VALUATION OF PROPERTY, TAXATION, &c., IN NEW ORLEANS.

An Abstract of the Assessment of the Parish of Orleans, after objections and corrections have been made, for 1853.

Rep. Districts.	Real Estate.	Negroes.	Capital.	Licenses.
First,.....	5,653,360	680,000	313,135	6,475
Second,.....	7,251,415	676,150	536,360	9,730
Third,.....	20,157,175	537,750	6,882,030	76,235
Fourth,.....	9,150,730	376,800	2,630,800	24,115
Fifth,.....	6,886,340	551,900	651,100	16,900
Sixth,.....	4,356,760	549,900	492,600	7,980
Seventh,.....	2,538,615	355,800	317,800	6,990
Eighth,.....	1,669,175	117,400	406,900	3,670
Ninth,.....	1,830,790	334,100	266,650	3,710
Tenth,.....	6,806,000	362,500	198,700	7,350
Real Estate,.....	66,350,260	4,342,300	12,895,495	163,115
Negroes,.....	4,342,300			
Capital,.....	12,895,495	83,588,053		
State Tax, 16½c. per \$100,.....				\$139,323 42
Mill Tax for the support of Public Schools,.....				83,588 05
State Licenses,.....				163,115 00
Poll Tax for the support of Public Schools,.....				9,709 00
Total,.....				\$395,725 47

City Taxes, &c.

Jackson Railroad Company, 50c. per \$100,.....	331,751 30
Opelousas " " 33½c. ".....	221,167 53
Consolidated Debt, 105c. per \$100,.....	696,677 73
Current Expenses, 75c. ".....	530,194 20
Total,.....	\$1,779,790 76

In comparing the above statement with the returns of last year, it will be observed that the increase of taxable property in the parish of Orleans is \$6,025,925, viz.: Real Estate, \$3,440,785; Slaves, \$383,100, and Capital, \$2,202,040. This increase is only in nine districts—the Tenth (Lafayette) is unknown.

The Howard Association, of New Orleans, during the late epidemic, treated 11,088 patients, as will be seen by the following statistics, taken from their report. This Association has conferred immortal honor upon the philanthropists of New Orleans, the glorious future of which cannot be checked by pestilential chastenings. Already has the city seemingly recovered from the trials through which she has passed; and long may she enjoy an immunity from them in the future! If we have referred in the past to her sorrows, it has been in the hope of deriving wisdom out of her bitter experiences, such wisdom as will hereafter result in measures of security. We have spoken as a citizen, and one who in evil or in good has nothing to expect but to share her fortunes and her destiny.

The Cases of Yellow Fever treated by the Howard Association.

<i>Natives of</i>		<i>Natives of</i>	
Ireland.....	5,845	Sweden.....	28
England.....	198	Norway.....	19
Scotland.....	56	Denmark.....	14
Wales.....	7	Belgium.....	8
Germany.....	2,800	Holland.....	5
Switzerland.....	35	Poland.....	11
Italy and Tyrol.....	80	Mexico.....	14
Spain.....	39	West Indies.....	3
Portugal.....	2	St. Domingo.....	2
France.....	436	Canada.....	21
Savoy.....	6	Nova Scotia and New Brunswick.....	9
Corsica.....	1	Indian.....	1
Greek Isles.....	6	United States.....	716
Jerusalem.....	1	Unknown.....	635
	9,602		1,486
	1,486		
Total.....	11,088		
Of which.....	5,903 were males, and		
	5,685 " females.		
	9,415 were adults.		
	1,673 " under 16 years of age.		
Of which number.....	2,942 died, and		
	8,146 were discharged cured.		

We called attention, in our September number, 1853, to a proposition for a call of a Convention of Civil Engineers of the Southern and Western States, at some proper time and place, to consider the general interests of the profession in its bearings upon the Internal Improvement system of the country. The proposition we consider one of great importance, and cordially recommend it to the attention of engineers, from whom we shall be glad to hear upon the subject.

In December last, we attended the Convention of Southern Planters, which was held in Columbia, S. C., and have been expecting ever since to receive a copy of the proceedings from the Secretary, in order to insert them in the Review, and also some of the very able and valuable reports. These will appear before very long in our pages. The Convention adjourned over to meet at Raleigh, N. C.

In the January number of the Review there appeared an article on the Census, written by a gentleman in Washington. This article was prepared during the absence of the editor from this city, and without his knowledge and consent inserted by the parties in charge of the work, into its pages. Though a valuable statistical paper, it contained reference to the editor of the *Review* and to his official connections, which were in very bad taste, and which could never have been allowed to appear, had they passed under his inspection. In a part of the edition the objectionable matter was omitted.

SOUTHERN BOOKS.

We call attention to the following card, from J. W. Randolph, of Richmond, Virginia, one of our best southern publishers, and whose stock of Old Virginia works is large and well selected, embracing the works of all of her great Statesmen.

Notes on the State of Virginia, by Thomas Jefferson, illustrated with a map, including the States of Virginia, Maryland, Delaware, and Pennsylvania; a new edition, prepared by the author, containing notes and plates never before published. 8vo., muslin, \$2 50.

Elements of Descriptive Geometry, by S. Schooler, M. A., Instructor in Mathematics at Hanover Academy, Va. 4to., muslin, \$2 00.

Dr. C. J. B. Williams, and others, on the Principles of the Water Cure, with comments and explanatory remarks, by J. Timberlake, designed chiefly to point out the most beneficial modes of bathing, &c. 18mo. paper, 37c.

Premium Essay on Agricultural Education, by E. Ruffin. 2d edition, 8vo. paper, 12c.

The Virginia Mineral Springs, with remarks on their use, the diseases to which they are applicable, and in which they are contra-indicated, accompanied by a map of routes and distances; a new work. Second edition, improved and enlarged. By W. Burke, M. D., 12mo. muslin, \$1 25.

Laws of Virginia on Corporations. 8vo. paper, 50c.

The Plantation Book is by one of the best and most systematic farmers in Virginia, and experienced farmers have expressed the opinion that those who use it will save hundreds of dollars. Price \$2 00.

Books sent by mail, free of postage, to those who remit the price to J. W. Randolph, 121 Main-street, Richmond, Va.

Catalogues of rare, old and new books will be sent to all who apply, post paid.

"*Six Months in Italy*." By GEORGE SULLMAN HILLARD, in two volumes, Boston: Ticknor, Reed & Fields, 1853. This charming little work has been before us for some time; but, from a pressure of other duties, it has not received that attention which it so justly merits.

The land of Italy is ever associated with interesting recollections. Her ancient glory, as shown in the writings of her historians, poets, and philosophers, will shine to all future ages, the monuments of the past, her "seven-hilled city," when she sat a Queen, and when

"Her triumphs purpling her streets,
And princes and sceptered men
Bow'd at her feet,"

All bring to the mind her former grandeur. Nor is her land now less the scene of deep interest to the scholar and the statesman. Mr. Hillard, in his pictorial pages, brings to our "mind's eye" Rome, with its magnificence and glory. St. Peter's tall spires rise before us, the Sunday evening vespers of sacred melody "in pealing anthems swell the note of praise" upon our enchanted ears. Its statuary is presented to our eyes, and the Vatican is open, and we see the Apollo Belvidere in all its matchless symmetry, and the Laocoon in its terrific contortions and sublimity. Not only is Rome depicted with graphic minuteness, but Venice, Milan, Verona, Naples, and other places, are described in a most pleasing style, and their objects of interest presented in a most captivating manner. We most cheerfully recommend the perusal of this work.

The British Poets. Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1854. This work will comprise the British Poets, from Spenser to Moore, chiefly reprinted from the celebrated Aldine editions, with Lives of the Authors, and Notes, Historical and Critical, by Rev. JOHN MITFORD and others, comprising the following, now in course of publication:—

Akenside	1 vol.	Milton	3 vols.
Beattie	1 "	Parnell	1 "
Burns	3 "	Pope	3 "
Butler	2 "	Prior	2 "
Churchill	3 "	Shakespeare	1 "
Collins	1 "	Surrey and Wyatt	2 "
Cowper	3 "	Swift	3 "
Dryden	5 "	Thomson	2 "
Falconer	1 "	White, H. K.	1 "
Goldsmith	1 "	Young	2 "
Gray	1 "		

The *Boston Atlas* says, "They are issued in a style every way equal to, and at a much less price than, the English editions. We have compared a volume of this series with the Aldine copy; and, if there is any choice, our preference is certainly in favor of the American reprint. It is an exact facsimile of the London edition, page by page the same. . . . This undertaking cannot fail to prove a most fortunate and successful one just at the present moment, when the productions of the British poets are, to a great extent, out of print, or only to be possessed in expen-

sive English editions; while the desire for them was, perhaps, never likely to be so great as at present."

Shaffner's American Telegraph Companion, published monthly in the city of New York. Devoted exclusively to the art of Telegraphing, being the cheapest and largest publication ever issued on the science; containing 48 pages octavo. Terms, \$2 per annum. Address PUDNEY & RUSSELL, 79 John-street, N. Y.

Bankers' Magazine, January, 1854. The plan of the *Bankers' Magazine* contemplates the publication of all information that is important to capitalists, bank officers, and bank directors. This especially includes the annual exhibits of the finances of each State; finances of cities; Tabular view of railroad bonds, and the funded debts of Railroad Companies; important legal decisions respecting banks, bills of exchange, promissory notes, &c.; Banking Statistics of every State in the Union; Tables of stock movements during each Month; and such details as will be acceptable to moneyed institutions.

The *Bankers' Magazine* is edited and published by T. SMITH HOMANS, 70 Wall street, New York.

NOTICES OF BOOKS.

The *Rhetorical Manual, or Southern Fifth Reader*, published by J. B. Steel, New Orleans.

Parley's Present for all Seasons, by S. G. GOODRICH, author of *Peter Parley*, &c. D. Appleton & Co., N. Y.; J. B. Steel, N. O.

Littell's Living Age, 1854. A beautiful engraving in each number. The *Living Age* has been abundantly honored by the approbation of the best judges; it has been pronounced to be sound and vigorous; various and entertaining; full of spirit and life; uniting the qualities which gratify the scholar, the philosopher, and the man of business, with those which recommend it to their wives and children. We shall now endeavor to add to these intrinsic excellences the greater attractions of Art, and beginning with 1854, every number will contain an impression from a beautiful *Steel Plate*. The 52 Plates a-year will alone be worth the price of subscription.

This work is made up of the elaborate and stately essays of the Edinburgh, Quarterly, and other Reviews; and Blackwood's noble criticisms on Poetry, his keen political Commentaries, highly wrought Tales, and vivid descriptions of rural and mountain Scenery; and the contributions to Literature, History, and Common Life, by the sagacious Spectator, the sparkling Examiner, the judicious Athenæum, the busy and industrious Literary Gazette, the sensible and comprehensive Britannia, the sober and respectable Christian Observer: these are intermixed with the Military and Naval Reminiscences of the United Service, and with the best articles of the Dublin University, New Monthly, Fraser's, Tait's, Ainsworth's, Hood's, and Sporting Magazines, and of Chambers' admirable Journal. We do not consider it beneath our dignity to borrow wit and wisdom from Punch; and, when we think it good enough, make use of The Times. We shall increase our variety by importations from the continent of Europe, and from the new growth of the British colonies.

The *Living Age* is published every Saturday, by Littell, Son & Co., corner of Tremont and Bromfield streets, Boston. Price 12½ cents a number, or six dollars a year in advance. Remittances for any period will be thankfully received and promptly attended to.

They will send the *Living Age*, postage free, to all subscribers within the United States, who remit in advance, directly to the office of publication, the sum of six dollars, thus placing their distant subscribers on the same footing as those nearer to them, and making the whole country their neighborhood.

First Series of the Living Age.—We offer for sale complete sets in 36 volumes, as follows: Strongly and handsomely bound with red backs, 80 dollars; bound in cloth as heretofore, 72 dollars. The *General Index*, now nearly ready for the press, will be bound to match each style. Littell, Son & Co., Boston.

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THIS IS THE PURE AND ESSENTIAL EXTRACT FROM THE NATIVE DRUG.

It contains all the valuable medicinal properties of Opium in natural combination, to the exclusion of all its noxious, deleterious, and useless principles, upon which its bad effects depend.

It possesses all the sedative, anodyne, and anti-spasmodic powers of Opium.

To produce sleep and composure. To allay convulsions and spasmodic action.

To relieve pain and irritation, nervous excitement and morbid irritability of body and mind, &c., &c.

And being purified from all noxious and deleterious elements, its operation is attended by *No sickness of the stomach, no vomiting, no costiveness, no headache.*

Nor any derangement of the constitution or general health.

Hence its high superiority over Laudanum, Paregoric, Black Drop, Denarcotized Laudanum, and every other opiate preparation.

The Elixir of Opium is also greatly superior to Morphine.]

1. In its containing all the active medicinal virtues of Opium in native combination, and in being its full representative, while Morphine, being only one of its 'principles,' cannot alone, and that in an artificial state of combination too, produce all the characteristic effects of so triumphant a remedy, when four or five of its other valuable principles are excluded.
2. In its effects, the Elixir is more characteristic, permanent, and uniform, than any of the artificial compounds of Morphine.
3. And as a Preparation, it is not liable to decompose or deteriorate like the Solutions of Morphine; and thus is obviated a serious objection, which has prevented the latter from being used with precision and effect.

To speak summarily, the Elixir of Opium, as a remedy, may be adopted in all cases in which Opium or its preparations are administered, with the certainty of obtaining all their salutary and happy effects, without being followed by their distressing and pernicious consequences. And in the greatest number of those cases in which no other form of opiate can be used without occasioning the worst effects, it can also be used, with the most eminent success and the happiest results.

All orders from the "Trade" must be addressed, as heretofore, to A. B. & D. SANDS, Wholesale Druggists, 100 Fulton-street, corner of William, New-York. Sold by Druggists generally.

SANDS' SARSAPARILLA

IN QUART BOTTLES.

For the removal and permanent cure of all diseases arising from an impure state of the blood, or habit of the system.

The value of this medicine is now widely known, and every day the field of its usefulness is extended. It is approved and highly recommended by Physicians, and admitted to be the most powerful and search ing preparation from the root that has ever been employed in medical practice. Its operation extends to the remotest parts of the system, and consists in removing diseased action in the absorbing and secreting organs. In man, Nature seldom effects, unassisted, the cure of any virulent disease, but requires the aid of a stimulant, alterative, or antiseptic medicine. In diseases of the skin and flesh, a combination of these three classes of medical agents is highly desirable. All these properties are combined in this preparation; and instead of operating successively upon the system, as they must necessarily do when taken separately, they operate simultaneously and in perfect harmony, when administered in this form. Its tonic properly strengthens the digestion and improves the appetite—its alternative tendency carries off the accumulations of morbid matter—and its antiseptic influence neutralizes the virus, by which the disease is fostered. Its uniform success in curing and relieving the various diseases for which it is recommended, is established by a multitude of attested facts.

ASTONISHING CURE.

NEW-ORLEANS, La., Sept. 23, 1852.

Messrs. A. B. & D. SANDS: Gentlemen,—Having received so much benefit from the use of your Sarsaparilla, I cannot refrain from adding my testimonial to those you have already received. For about six years I suffered much from disease of the lungs, which at times was so severe that it was with difficulty that I could cough or expectorate. I was attended by one of the most celebrated physicians of New-Orleans, who finally declared my case hopeless, and that I had only to wait for death. After this, one of my friends, who had used your invaluable Sarsaparilla, advised me to try it. I procured six bottles from your agents in this city, which I took with decided benefit, and after using it for three months, I was radically cured.

I remain yours, very truly,

EUGENE LEMONE.

Prepared and sold, wholesale and retail, by A. B. & D. SANDS, Druggists and Chemists, No. 100 Fulton-street, corner of William, New-York. Sold also by Druggists generally throughout the United States and Canada. Price \$1 per bottle; six bottles for \$5. Sold also by Sickles & Co. and J. Wright & Co., New-Orleans; Dr. P. H. McGraw, Natchez; S. Mansfield & Co., Memphis; J. Tucker, Mobile; R. E. Cox & Co., Montgomery, Ala.; H. Blakesley, St. Louis, Mo.; J. Jones, Jr., Columbus, Miss.; J. & T. Greene, Jackson, Miss. and by Druggists generally.

Advertisements.

DE BOW'S INDUSTRIAL RESOURCES.

3 vols. \$10 or \$3 33 per vol. (postage free.)

OFFICE OF THE BOARD OF TRADE,
Baltimore, June 6, 1853.

At a meeting of this Board, held to-day, the annexed Resolution was unanimously adopted, and a copy ordered to be sent to you.

With much respect, yours very truly,
GEO. W. PORTER, Sec.

J. D. B. De Bow, Esq.

Resolved—That, recognizing in De Bow's Review an intelligent exponent of the great agricultural and commercial resources of the South and West, we cordially recommend the same to the patronage and support of the commercial community.

JOHN C. BRUNE, President.

From Hon. George Bancroft, Historian of the United States.—Your work exceeds in merit any similar one with which I am acquainted in any other part of the Union.

From Hon. Robert J. Walker.—The whole work is useful and valuable. I have read several articles with interest and instruction.

From the Boston Post.—"It is second to no other work of the kind in the United States; its statistics are collected with great care; the whole is edited by a well-known writer."

From Hunt's Merchants' Magazine.—"This is altogether the most important book on the industrial interests of the country which has been issued from the American press; important not only to the people of the Southern and Western States, respecting which it is so rich in details, but equally important to whatever citizen in other sections desires to become acquainted with the incalculable riches of this portion of our common country. The manner in which the work has been prepared and issued from the press, reflects high credit upon the diligence, discernment and accomplishments of its author, while it can scarcely fail to meet with a very general and complimentary commendation for its fulness, accuracy, and completeness, upon all the subjects of which it treats."

NEW VARIETY OF STRAWBERRY. CRESCENT SEEDLING PERPETUAL.

This is a new American Seedling, raised by Mr. Henry Lawrence, of New-Orleans, by crossing the "British Queen" and "Keen's" seedling. It is the first perpetual strawberry of large size and first-rate quality ever raised. For six months this remarkable fruit continues bearing. "I neither cut off the blossoms," says Mr. L., "nor any part of them, to increase its bearing—it is one continued crop from the first, and if you want to know how it bears after four months fruiting, a friend has just (May 9th), counted from thirty-two to forty-two berries on four successive plants, the largest measuring five and a half inches, and the average being three inches in circumference."

No doubt this variety will greatly extend the strawberry season in the North, making it an immense acquisition to strawberry growers, and in hybridizing. The almost utter impossibility of getting plants alive from New-Orleans will make this kind scarce for some time. It has been ordered from all quarters, but very few plants have been received alive.

Dr. Bayne, the famous strawberry grower at Alexandria, D. C., ordered \$25 worth, but succeeded in "saving but one plant, which," he remarks, "\$25 would not buy." Mr. Pardee, of Palmyra, New-York, after repeated efforts succeeded in saving a few plants, and is disposing of them in pots at \$2 each. A supply of these can be had from Mr. Henry Lawrence at \$8 per hundred.

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CALL attention to their complete stock of goods in their line, but particularly to *pure old Rye Whiskey*, which is recommended as genuine. Every article sold by G. & Co., not giving satisfaction, or proving as recommended, will be taken back, and all expenses paid by themselves.

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For sewing leather, cloth, and all fabrics, thin or thick, with a new and secure stitch made by two threads direct from *spools*. These machines are of so simple a construction that any one can work them, and there being no *shuttle* used, are not liable to get out of repair. One person with a machine will do the work of *twelve*, and as strong as, and far more uniform and beautiful than can be done by hand.

Prices from \$60 to \$150. Descriptive pamphlets mailed upon request.

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New-York; Haymarket square, Boston.

Texas Land for Sale—Valuable Tract.

The titles have been judicially settled, and they are as good as any in Texas. The land is in one single body of 2,200 acres, running for a mile or two on the west bank of the Trinity, about fifty miles below its three forks. It is well timbered and runs back to a fine prairie; is not subject to overflow, and has a fine bluff margin on the river. Either on or near it is Porter's Bluff, a place designated as a town site, being at the head of navigation. It is nearly intersected by the parallel latitude of 32°, the extreme limit of the cotton region, and the point believed by common experience to be the best for maturing the plant. The prairie behind it is extensive and exhaustless for grazing. It is nearly in the direct line of the Shreveport and Red River road, incorporated by our recent legislature, and organized by the election of officers, of whom Mr. Coleman is President. They have begun to work already upon it, the first instalment having been called for. The land is valuable now and prospectively much more so. It is of a quality that already commands \$3.00 per acre. Address A. F. AXSON, New-Orleans.

GEO. W. SIZER, Agricultural Warehouse, corner of Magazine and Poydras streets, New-Orleans.

J. B. STEEL, Bookseller, Stationer, and Publisher, 60 Camp-st., N. Orleans. "Stationery, School Books, Standard, Law, Medical, Literary, and Scientific Works, at Northern publishers' prices. French works on Civil Law, at low prices.

CHITTENDEN & DAMERON, Dealers in Carpeting, Oil Cloths, and Housekeeping Dry Goods, 26 Chartres-st., and 27 Customhouse-street, New-Orleans.

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F. P. DUCONGE, Druggist, Importer of French and English Chemicals, 39 Chartres-st., N. O.

THOMAS RANKIN, Retail and Plantation Druggist, corner of Camp and Poydras streets, N. O.

J. SYME & Co., 91 Canal-street, corner of Carondelet, Importers and Dealers in Drugs, Medicines, Chemicals, Surgical Instruments, Patent Medicines, Swedish Leeches, Perfumery, etc., New-Orleans.

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E. J. HART & Co., 79 Tchoupitoulas-street, N. O., Wholesale Dealers in Groceries, Wines, Liquors, Teas, Spices, &c., Sulphate Quinine, and Staple Drugs by the Package or Case, Colman's Patent Undulatory Corn Mill.

LITTLEJOHN & HENDERSON, Wholesale Grocers, No. 66 Magazine-st., cor. Natchez, N. O. **JOS. LITTLEJOHN, SAM. HENDERSON.**

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SLARK, DAY & STAUFFER, Dealers in Hardware, Iron, and Nails, Tin Plates, Copper, &c., 64 Canal-st., N. O. Agents for Page's Portable Saw-Mills.

R. RICHARDS, 11 Chartres-st., N. O., Importer and Wholesale Dealer in Foreign and Domestic Hardware, Cutlery, Iron, Steel, Oils, Paints, Nails, Axes, Hoes, Trace Chains, &c.

PRIESTLEY & BEIN, 89 and 91 Camp-st. New-Orleans, Importers of Hardware, Tin Plate, Iron, &c. Agents for Manufacturers of Sheet and Bolt Copper, Tennessee Iron, and Cast Iron-Pipes.

F. F. FOLGER & Co., 17 New Levee, 32 and 34 Tchoupitoulas-st., N. O. Hardware, Cutlery, Iron, Steel, Nails, Castings, Chains, Anchors, Cordage, Axes, Hoes, Millstones, Grindstones, Paints, Oils, Oakum, Tar, Pitch, Glass, &c., &c.

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YOUNG & Co., (late Nelson A. Young,) Importers and Dealers in Jewelry, Fine Watches, Silver Ware, Fancy Goods, &c., &c., No. 8 Camp-street, New-Orleans.

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LEHDE & KREBS, Boot and Shoe makers, 27 St. Charles-st., under the Verandah Hotel, N. O. Boots, Shoes, and Brogans, for gentlemen's wear and plantation uses, always on hand at reduced prices.

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SHERMAN'S NEW PATENT Truss and Rupture Remedy, will speedily effect a permanent cure in all forms of Hernia or Rupture. The Truss is formed on the true principles of surgery, and differs in principle of action from all others: it will bear directly on the hernial ring, and thereby retain the worst forms of hernia under the most violent exercise, and without any inconvenience to the wearer. The Wash, or Remedy, facilitates, and adds permanency to the cure. It is also an effectual preventive against rupture where there are any symptoms of predisposition to it. To guard against impositions, the proprietor has concluded to form no agencies, but to furnish the Remedy and apply the Truss at his office, No. 70 St. Charles-st., N. Orleans.

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